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COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
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HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE



SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

1. CIVICS FOR THE GRADES

J. LYNN BARNARD, *Philadelphia School of Pedagogy*

Of late we are coming to vision a twelve year program of training in citizenship extending from the first year of the elementary school to the last year of the secondary school. In fact, that is the only justification of the public school system, that it shall train for active, intelligent citizenship; and all its work must be shaped to that end. In all the varied curriculum of the modern school, History and Civics stand out preeminently as the studies which most directly train for citizenship.

This training must be based on certain fundamental principles. It must be continuous and cumulative; it must proceed from the near, the simple, the concrete to the relatively remote, complex, abstract; it must progress from function to structure, from activities to organization; it must relate civics to past events—history made, and to present events—history in the making; and, finally, it must relate civics to conduct—hence a curriculum both of study and of activities.

The civics program for the elementary and junior high schools may be considered under the following classification: civic virtues, Grades I—IV; community cooperation, Grades III—V; industrial cooperation, Grade VI; community organization, Grades VII—VIII; industrial organization, Grade IX. On this foundation the senior high school may build a superstructure of socialized history, European and American, and of social problems, a study of which shall lead into the elements of sociology, economics, and political science.

Now as to the basic work of the first six years, beginning with the civic virtues.

During these early years the child's predominant psychological stage is that of imagination; his environment is a limited one, centering in his home and his school; and the work in civics must be planned accordingly. Such civic virtues as obedience, cleanliness, orderliness,

courtesy, helpfulness, punctuality, truthfulness, fair play, thoroughness, honesty, courage, self-control, perseverance, thrift may be inculcated in the impressionable young citizens. The progression in these virtues will at once be observed, namely from the objective to the subjective, from the simpler to the more mature.

Results will best be secured by the use of stories, poems, memory gems, songs, pictures, games, and dramatization of stories told by the teacher. The object is that of habit formation, that shall both cultivate these civic virtues in the young citizen and at the same time afford a basis of social experience for the interpretation of new social situations as they shall arise.

Coming now to community cooperation, we discover that the child is emerging from that delightful age of the imagination—so unreal to his elders, so real to him—and passing into the age of idealization, of hero-worship, where his chief interest is in adventure, in heroic deeds, in people who are doing things. Moreover, his environment is a rapidly widening one, reaching out to the community round about him. And our civic teaching must follow the child.

The baker, the milkman, the butcher, the shoemaker, the dressmaker, the carpenter, the plumber, the painter, the doctor, the nurse,—all these people who help to make up the community, and without whose constant aid he could not even preserve life or health, must be made known to him as very living and very interesting realities.

Then will come policeman, fireman, street-sweeper, ash and garbage collector, and other community employees who render direct and immediate service to the child and his family. And this will be followed by those who supply more indirect and remote service, such as water, gas, electricity, and the telephone, parks, playgrounds, etc.

Several objects must be kept in view in this part of the work: first, the service rendered by each member of the community, and the dependence of the young citizen and his family on that service; second, the interdependence of each member of the community on the others, and the cooperation that makes such interdependence possible; third, the adult embodiment of those very civic virtues that have already been impressed upon the children. The third aim is, after all, only a continuation of the training in habit formation begun, as we have seen, in the earlier grades. However, the effect is now indirect, personified in those of mature years who are really of use in the world, instead of direct and personal, as heretofore.

As to the method to be employed: discussion, trips, class reports, and stories of men and women who have made good take the place of the earlier songs, games, fairy tales, and dramatization. Of course, the final object of these later years must be kept steadily in mind—that of arousing interest in our community servants, of bringing the

child to appreciate the character and importance of their work, and of leading him to want to do what he can to help. The "curriculum of activities" mentioned above, must not be forgotten.

By the time the sixth grade is reached the environment of the child, in many homes, has come to be distinctly economic. The law says, in Pennsylvania, that the young citizens may leave school—except for the few hours a week in a continuation school, where there is one—at the close of their sixth school year, provided they are fourteen years of age and can meet a few other conditions. And away they go, these youthful burden-bearers, by the thousands every year, a mournful procession to those who realize its significance.

Before these children leave their daily school life, perhaps all regular schooling, they must learn that there is such a thing as good citizenship in industry. They must be given some notion of the industrial life around them and of how they can best fit themselves into some occupation where they can render real service to their employer and to the community at large. So we may call this sixth year the "vocational civics" year. This will be time well spent, not only for those who are soon to leave, but for those who are to remain.

Through write-ups of local industries and occupations, which each community will need to prepare for itself, and through trips and class discussions, the objects of this phase of civic training may be realized. These aims are, in brief, to give vocational guidance, to show community cooperation in industry, and to train the young citizen in the ethics of business—what the employer owes him and what he owes the employer. And ethics in business is discovered to be nothing more, after all, than the exemplification of those very civic virtues he has been kept in touch with all along the way. Once again he learns the value of right habit formation, which alone makes for real success in life and which is in itself the essence of good citizenship.

The young people have now arrived at the early adolescent stage, which marks the beginning of the junior high school years. They are gradually emerging from the stage of hero worship, of interest in people who are doing things, and are beginning to look for the causes that lie back of individual activity. We sometimes call it the age of integration, of unification. The boys and girls have now reached the time when they are interested in sequence, in cause and effect; hence they are ready to think about the organization that gives unity and power to what has seemed before to be only-individual initiative.

Moreover, this is the age when the "gang spirit" begins to manifest itself, and this lends additional meaning to a study of community organization. The need is now to shape and mould this "gang spirit" so that it shall develop into the cooperative spirit of true citizenship.

Once more our method of civic teaching changes, to keep pace with our young citizens. And now for a year or two, preferably two, the so-called "elements of civic welfare" may well be studied. There are: health, protection of life and property, education, recreation, civic beauty, communication, transportation, wealth. So much for the normal individuals. But it is equally an element of civic welfare that the sub-normal, the physically and mentally handicapped, shall be cared for by the community. And it is just as important that the moral weaklings, the anti-social, shall receive the sort of treatment they require. These last two classes may be discussed under separate headings such as "charities" and "correction," or under one heading such as "care of the unfortunate." In both, the keynote must be prevention.

In the earlier topics the executive or administrative side of government has been constantly under discussion, until the various departments, bureaus, and commissions are fairly well understood. The last two topics have been equally dependent on the judiciary. But, though frequent reference has been made to laws and ordinances, the method and scope of law-making have not been considered. These are not beyond the pupils' intelligence and interest, now that they have learned what laws are for and how they are enforced.

Of much importance, if time permits, is a very elementary discussion of taxation,—of where the money comes from to run all these branches of our local, state, and national government, how the money is appropriated, and how the expenditures are checked up at fairly regular intervals.

It would seem as if the list of topics was now complete. But there still remains a brief study of political parties, of how they are organized and how they work. This will include a look at both party organization and election machinery. We must not forget that without their steady cooperation our "check and balance" system of government—with its division of powers between state and nation, and its separation of powers between legislative, executive, and judicial—would be absolutely unworkable. This can be made plain, in simple terms, to the eighth grade pupil who has had consecutive training in civics for a number of years.

Special attention may need to be given by the teacher of civics to Americanization in its larger aspects, especially in the industrial centers. This must include not only the machinery of naturalization but also the years of preparatory training in English and civics for our foreign population. While this is primarily for adults, the lesson

of "preparedness" may be transmitted from the school into the homes. We can no longer afford to wait complacently for the "second generation," trained in our schools, to take the place of the "first generation." The children must carry this message home to their parents, and their parents must heed the warning.

Four steps will naturally be taken in a study of the "elements of welfare." First is the "approach," which opens up the topic and shows how important and how interesting it is to each boy and girl. Then come the "means," through which the result is to be attained; for example, health may be secured through pure air, pure water, pure food, freedom from contagious disease, etc. This, in turn, leads to a study of the "agencies"—local, state, and national, public and private—by means of which these civic needs are supplied; for example, departments or bureaus of health, housing, building inspection, and the like. Following this, or running through all that has preceded, comes the practical lesson of personal responsibility to cooperate with civic agencies, which must be learned by each young citizen of the class.

While this cooperation is often individual, it is usually more effective when it is collective, groupal; and, fortunately, the "gang spirit" once more comes to the rescue and reinforces the suggestions or hints of the teacher. This organized cooperation can be worked out through Thrift Clubs, Junior Civic Leagues, Junior Red Cross, Health Crusaders, Junior Police, or in any other fashion that fits the work to be accomplished by the class.

This citizen responsibility takes one of three forms: first, to do the thing one's self; second, to summon the agency, public or private, that has been established to look after the matter and then leave it to that agency; third, to work continuously with that agency. Examples of each will occur to the reader.

Under the guidance of a teacher with the civic viewpoint the activities that will be undertaken by a junior high school class, in an organized way, will be both practical and of the highest educational value to the young people. These young citizens will "learn by doing" that the new civics is both a curriculum of study and a curriculum of activities.

The last year of the junior high school, or the first year of the usual four-year high school, has now been reached. No matter which type of organization prevails, the school mortality of this particular year is high. As in the sixth school year so in the ninth, there is a very considerable exodus. So once again it would seem that the civics teaching should be vocational in character. The old-time ancient history, with its discouraging array of Greek and Latin names, is being merged in a later survey of the great epochs and institutions of European history; and its place is being taken by a year of careful

thought about the elementary principles of economic life, such as the production and consumption of wealth and of how one may best fit himself into the economic niche that nature has fitted him to occupy. Of course, the way in which the young worker will be aided by governmental and private agencies is carefully noted, and the service he may expect to render to society in any particular occupation or industry.

While the foregoing program of civics instruction is planned primarily for city and town schools, yet it is equally applicable to rural schools provided it is modified in details. City and country alike have need to cultivate both the civic virtues and the spirit of community cooperation. Both city and country must secure the elements of civic welfare for the citizens, though the agencies in the former may be more complex than in the latter. In both alike the young citizens need special training in the civic aspects of the vocational life which they will soon enter; they must learn the full meaning of the term "good citizenship in industry." And, finally, the young person must learn that good citizenship is a growth, an achievement, the result of years of right thinking and right acting, and not a happy accident.

2. CIVICS FOR THE UPPER GRADES AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

ARTHUR W. DUNN, *U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.*

A thoroughgoing study of community civics is recommended for the seventh and eighth grades. It is essential, however, to recognize the essential purposes and characteristics of community civics, and to organize its study around clearly defined, vitalizing ideas.

I. It must be *civics*.

1. By the derivation of the word, it is that which pertains to *citizenship*. The controlling purpose is to train for and in citizenship, and not merely to communicate any particular body of knowledge. Efficient citizenship requires the possession of a fund of well organized, accurate knowledge, and community civics must provide for this. But good citizenship does not necessarily follow from the mere transmission of knowledge. Much so-called community civics consists in the impartation of knowledge that does not function in good citizenship.

2. Civics has always implied a study of *government*, and should continue to do so. Community civics is not a substitute for the study of government, as some seem to imply, but a method by which to study it. Community civics involves the acquisition of much knowledge that is not governmental—economic and social—but it fails of its purpose if it does not include the governmental. Government is the community's organization for civic teamwork. Community civics in the grammar grades and junior high school must get this idea across.

II. Community civics must be *vitalized* civics.

This means that the instruction given shall not only relate to facts that are "vital," or important, in themselves, but that it shall be made to *function in the life of the pupil*.

The basic test of the effectiveness of the civics instruction is the effect it has upon *the present attitude of mind of the pupil toward his community relations and toward all government* (home, school, local, state, and national) *as a means of securing teamwork for common ends*. A further analysis of this test is given in U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28, pp. 57, 58.

Some of the vitalizing elements in the method of community civics are:

1. The demonstration by and for the pupil of the existence of common interests and purposes (common to him and to all others in the community—home, school, neighborhood, city, state, or nation.) These common purposes or interests afford a basis *within the pupil* for the organization of the study of government.

2. The demonstration of the necessity for organized teamwork growing out of the existence of the common purposes and our interdependence.

3. The demonstration of government as a means of securing such organized teamwork.

The organization of government has two phases with which the pupil must be made familiar:

1. The organization for service, involving leadership.
2. The organization for popular control.

III. The significance of the word "community" in community civics is to be found in the above mentioned vitalizing elements; for a community is a group of people *working together* (teamwork) under *common laws* (organization and leadership) for *common purposes*. In the junior high school this conception should be applied to the study of our *national community*, and even of the *world community*, as well as to the study of the *local community*.

IV. Some misapprehensions regarding community civics.

1. The *local study* idea.

Community civics performed an important service in directing attention to the local community and its organization.

The primary value of local study in community civics, however, is to secure a basis of familiar experience by which the more unfamiliar and remote organization of the national community may be interpreted to young citizens.

In these days especially, community civics will fail of an important mission if it does not include the national community in its scope.

Moreover, local study may be as dead as the old civil government if the vitalizing principles above mentioned are not injected into it.

2. The sociological point of view from which community civics is approached, and the sociological material in it, have led some to consider the subject as merely an "elementary sociology," from which the civic element, or at least the governmental element, is largely eliminated.

3. The "pupil participation" conception.

Group activities, within and outside of the school, are an essential element in community civics. But they do not in themselves constitute community civics.

Their values:

- (1) The formation of civic habits.
- (2) The affording of a basis of experience by which to interpret new situations as they arise.

Community civics will not only draw upon the pupils' present and past experience, but it will seek to broaden and enrich that experience.

(a) By creating conditions of school life typical of the larger life outside of school.

(b) By increasing the pupils' contacts with, and participation in, the larger community activities.

A civic habit is a customary mode of reaction to a civic situation. Habitual response depends upon the existence of recognized stimuli. If we are to cultivate civic habits in school,

(a) The conditions under which the school activities take place must be as nearly identical as possible with conditions that prevail outside of school, and

(b) The activities in which the pupils participate must be accompanied by instruction that will aid the pupil to identify the elements in his present experience with the elements in typical situations of community and national life.

This is the function of community civics.

HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

1. A STUDY OF VOCATIONS AND OF ELEMENTARY ECONOMICS AS A PART OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COURSE

MARY McARDLE, *Irwin Junior High School, Pittsburgh*

The only basis for public support of education is service to the state in the development of an increasingly better citizenship. The first requisite of good citizenship is ability to be self-supporting, to earn a living, and it is therefore incumbent upon the schools to provide education that will supply this requisite. A study of vocations and of elementary economics is a necessary part of such an education, for there must be developed a proper realization of the worker's best place in the world's work, and of his relation to the complicated social and economic structure in which he lives, and to which he bears a citizen's relation.

Since so many boys and girls do not complete a high school course or proceed far into a high school course, it is necessary that such instruction be placed in the school curriculum where it will be of greatest benefit to the largest number of those able to be benefited by it. That makes it part of the work for the early adolescent years, the curriculum for which should be organized on the secondary school basis, or as the Junior High School.

The Junior High Schools of Pittsburgh first developed such a course to meet the needs of the boys enrolled in the courses arranged under the Smith-Hughes Act, and combined a consideration of the cooperative effort of people to satisfy individual and community wants, and of government as a means of cooperation, with a study of the vocations toward which the members of the class were working as the means by which they would take their places as economically independent members of the community, and a study of the elementary economic principles underlying industry both as concerns the individual vocations, and as concerns the other phases of industry related to them and to the welfare of the community as a whole.

Such a course being valuable to vocational students it is capable of being developed into a course considering vocations other than industrial ones in order that it may serve two ends, a means of civic training in fundamental human relationships, and a means of educational guidance so that the aims of education, individual and social may be better attained.

2. THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF EIGHT—HOW IT HAS WORKED

ARMAND J. GERSON, *William Penn High School, Philadelphia.*

The Report of the Committee of Eight, issued by the American Historical Association about ten years ago, has been of great significance ever since in the modification of History courses throughout the country. As a reminder to those whose work has not been chiefly in the grades, it may be in order to introduce the subject of this talk with a brief summary of the Committee's report. Grades 1, 2 and 3 deal with stories of primitive life, the celebration of holidays, and hero tales; Grades 4 and 5 contain a biographical treatment of American history; Grade 6 is devoted to the European antecedents of American history; Grades 7 and 8 provide for the formal study of American history.

The Report of the Committee of Eight has made certain very definite permanent contributions. In the first place, it has given clear recognition to the value of history in all the grades. Experience seems to have shown that even in Grade 1 it is of importance that the teacher shall regard history content as a separate problem with a distinctive aim of its own. Related to this contribution of the report is the general policy it advocates of assigning to each grade in the school a definite part of the general program. The work has been so distributed that the necessity for stopping now and again for reviews has been avoided. Finally, the report has been of great significance in the emphasis it has placed upon the necessity of presenting the European background of American history.

The present course in History used in the Philadelphia schools has been modeled very directly upon the recommendations of the Committee of Eight. The variations from these recommendations that are to be found in the Philadelphia grades are not of much significance. Many teachers in the Philadelphia system, while enthusiastic over the working out of their course in history, have come to recognize what they regard as certain points of weakness. It has been felt by some that there is an over-emphasis on the biographical approach in Grades 4 and 5; that the European background as outlined is too remote and too separate from its application; that it is a mistake to make no more definite provision for American history in the case of those pupils who leave school at the end of Grade 6.

The chief point of weakness in the Report of the Committee of Eight, however, is to be found in its failure to recognize that grouping of grades which the development of the Junior High School has

necessitated. This failure can not be counted a criticism of the Report, as the Junior High School was not in being at the time the Committee was working. Today, educators favor grouping the grades, 1—2—3; 4—5—6; 7—8—9. The discrepancy here referred to is particularly evident in Grade 6 where the Committee obviously intended the work in European history as preliminary to the American history taken up in grades 7 and 8. Today we regard Grade 6, not as the first year in a group of grades, but as the culmination of a six-grade school organization.

The following general suggestions for revision of the Report of the Committee of Eight are put forward tentatively and as a basis for discussion: In the first place it is suggested that a course in civics should in every school system run parallel with the course in history through all the grades. The history recommendations of the Committee for Grades 1, 2 and 3 seem to have justified themselves in the Philadelphia system, and no suggestion is here made for any change in this part of the work. It is suggested that in Grades 4, 5 and 6 a simple narrative of American history be presented, making use of such biographical material and European background as will be directly helpful. Finally, it is suggested that in Grades 7, 8 and 9 (the Junior High School), certain pressing problems of the present time be discussed from the point of view of their historic development. If we regard the chief purpose of history teaching to be the interpretation of present conditions, it follows that the historic approach to the civic and social problems of the present day must receive recognition. Furthermore, the approach to such troublesome issues as the Labor Situation, the High Cost of Living, Immigration, Our Relations with Mexico, and the like, should be of such a nature as to secure, not so much a final opinion on these matters, as a tolerance of attitude and that patience with "historical-mindedness" tends to develop.

Courses built upon the Report of the Committee of Eight were in many school systems radically different from the previous courses which they superseded. It has required a definite campaign of education among the teachers of the grades to secure the kind of acceptance and enthusiasm necessary to the success of these courses. I think it very important, therefore, that no further fundamental changes should be made hastily, and that when they are decided upon they shall be introduced gradually and with the approval of the teaching body.

3. PROPOSED REVISION OF COMMITTEE OF EIGHT REPORT

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, *Lincoln School, Teachers College, New York City.*

It behooves me at the outset to correct a misunderstanding. The committee which I represent had no thought of making a special onslaught upon the report of the Committee of Eight and I am at quite a loss to know just why I have been selected to deal with this particular part of the program in history. Our committee's work is concerned only with this report as it represents a portion of the twelve years for which we are making recommendations. We have reached the point in our educational development where it is imperative that we regard the entire twelve years as a single unit and plan our courses accordingly. This is the task to which we as a committee have set our hands. The proposals, therefore, which we have to make for these first eight years are to be judged by what we propose for the next four. With the problem of the junior high school before us whatever we recommend for these three years will predetermine to a certain extent whatever precedes and will go far towards shaping whatever is to follow.

Our attitude as a committee as indicated by our preliminary report was very favorable at the outset towards the work of the Committee of Eight as the following extract indicates:

"The Committee accepts the report of the former Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association (*The Study of History in the Elementary Schools*, New York, Scribners, 1909), as the basis of the common-school history work, but it expects to study this report with a view to adjusting its recommendations to the new situation which will result from a recasting of the high-school work, and for the purpose of effecting other improvements that may seem practicable."

We regarded it as Doctor Gerson pointed out as a real landmark in the reorganization of our history work. It is now just ten years since it was given to the public. When we came to examine it in the light of the principles which we had laid down for our committee and when we began to get in touch with those who had tried it out, we came to the very same conclusions which Doctor Gerson laid before you. We recognized its permanent contribution to be the inclusion of more European history in the work of the past six years, especially in the sixth year. We recognized also that it was built up to complete the work of the Committee of Seven which had confined its attention entirely to the high school. With the revi-

sion of this part of the course which our committee deemed necessary arose the necessity for a revision of the course as planned for these eight grades.

The Junior High School was not anticipated when the Committee of Eight drew up its report; in fact the Junior High School movement has made its greatest progress within the past five or six years. Any course which is outlined for the first eight grades today must take into account the Junior High School.

We have discovered, or recognized more clearly, that the secondary education of a child should begin, or really does begin, with the seventh year. He begins to take a different view of life and the world about him. This is the outstanding fact about the boy or girl which the school failed to recognize. He was essentially a different proposition from what he had been in those early grades. The school must, therefore, reorganize its courses with this fact in mind. This is the period when we should try to bring him into more direct contacts through our course of study with this larger world towards which his interests are directed.

One of the fundamental principles upon which our proposals for the twelve years are based must be recognized in this connection and herein is to be found one of the weaknesses of the report of the Committee of Eight. This principle is that very new step in history instruction must be a step forward and recognized by the student as such. The work planned for the seventh and eighth year by the Committee of Eight seemed to the child a repetition and often was a mere repetition of the work of the fourth and fifth grades. This was felt to be deadening to any further work in history and any twelve year scheme.

Looking at the Junior High School as the crux of the situation we felt that what was done here determined more largely what should precede and what should follow than any other part of the school course. We conceive in our twelve year plan of four great cycles. One of these is the making of the community and is begun and possibly completed in the second grade. The second is the making of the United States which covers grades three to four inclusive. The third is a junior high school cycle in which we present the United States of America in her world setting. It is a two year survey of world history with our own country given her proper place in the scheme. This is followed by the senior high school cycle in which attention is specially directed to the modern world.

Let me elaborate in more detail the work planned for these cycles, which are mutually interdependent. Each one depends for its success upon the other. They represent the conception that history is not only a body of information—a certain amount of subject matter—but is essentially a method. I was very much interested to hear Dr.

Dunn refer to Civics in this same way. It was "an attitude of mind," he said—"a reaction to civic responsibilities" that was sought. In the same way we conceive of the greatest values attaching to the study of history through the development of the right kind of method. The kind of objective towards which we are driving is expressed in some of the aims stated in our preliminary report. For example, we insist that

"The supreme aim in teaching of history and social science is to give positive direction to the growth of those mental and moral qualities of children which, rightly developed, constitute the basis of the highest type of citizenship.

"Historical training (a) frees the mind from the trammels of time and place, substituting the idea of social development and change for the instinctive notion of a static social world, performing in this respect a service in education analogous to that performed by biology for organic nature or by geology for inorganic nature. (b) It tends to produce openmindedness, which mitigates native prejudice and permits truth to gain recognition. (c) It induces patient inquiry for the purpose of disclosing the facts of a given situation before passing judgment. (d) It gives some grasp upon the methods of investigation and the tests of accuracy. (e) It develops that form of judgment which deals with the shifting and conditional relations of men in society, supplementing the scientific judgment which arises from the study of animate and inanimate nature and of mathematics. (f) It yields, or should yield, the high moral and ethical concepts of loyalty to principles and to institutions by revealing the cost at which the elements of civilization have been secured for us."

The testing of this kind of a result is, indeed, difficult, but it is a much more valuable contribution to make to the equipment of our boys and girls than so much information. Our committee insists that there is a particular—a specific method—of presenting history which should run throughout the whole 12 years. The insistence upon it will tend towards the results we have indicated. It is difficult to describe this method. Taking a leaf possibly from the report of the committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A. we insist that in this first cycle the teacher shall begin with those things nearest the child in her excursions into the past and before she is done shall establish again points of contact with the present. The past is to be presented as the past, taking the child back over past centuries by first placing him in contact with that past by means of things familiar to him or his present environment.

Children in the early grades are mature enough to recognize the element of change in the world, and it is through the appreciation of this fact that we are living in a changing world, that we look for the real values in the study of history. In this II grade, for example, the main points in the development of his community from Indian and pioneer days to the present can be presented in this way.

It is the same method which will characterize the work of the next four grades, III—VI, in which we take as our theme or thesis, the making of the United States, basing our work essentially on our first cycle and enlarging upon it by presenting such aspects of American history as how Europeans found our Continent and what they did with it, in the II grade; How Englishmen became Americans, in the IV Grade, taking the story from 1607 on through the Revolution to 1783; and in the next year and a half (Grades V—VI A or B), How America came to be what it is today.

At this point, taking into account those who complete their Education with this grade, in order that we may better realize our objective "that there shall be no gaps between the students' knowledge and the life he enters upon leaving school," and mindful that he will soon be saddled with civic responsibilities—we devote one-half year to the study of our government: what it is, what it does for us, and what we can do for it.

In the same way, following the same method, and emphasizing throughout the social and economic as well as the political factors involved, we present the survey designed for the Junior H. S. Our great problem here is to adjust our content to the time available. The demands of the Junior H. S. mean a large number of subjects with a new beginning to the boy or girl, a many sided view of life, and it follows that we can only ask for three periods a week. If these are supervised study periods of 50—60 minutes, it means, with the time requirement for work outside the class room, that we can ask for at best but from 200 to 240 minutes. This makes the selection of material for this cycle a matter of considerable moment.

There is another phase of the Junior H. S. course which is of interest. The committee is providing an easy transition from the recommendations of the Committee of light to the new program. The work of the VI grade which as planned for them may teach the child who completes his school work at this point without any special points of contact with the present is now transferred to the VIIth grade and carried to 1607. In the VIIIth grade the same kind of work is carried on, thereby enlarging his horizon beyond the limits set by his own country's history, and avoiding that narrow provincialism so characteristic to many of our people who leave school at the end of the VIIIth year. I shall not go into

detail as to the IXth year, as that is outside my province, beyond merely saying that here again anticipating that the reorganization of our schools on a 6-3-3 or a 6-6 basis will hold boys and girls within the school for at least a year longer than before. We plan at this point for a course which contains perhaps a larger element of civics.

Finally, we would wish it understood that we look upon our proposals as representing minimum essentials. We have selected from the field of history those portions that bear directly on this problem. This we take it is essentially the problem before the State of Pennsylvania with reference to the Social Sciences.

HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

1. A REORGANIZED COURSE IN HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE FOR THE FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL.

JESSIE C. EVANS, *William Penn High School, Philadelphia*

AIMS OF THE COURSE

General Aim: To train citizens who are not only intelligent members of modern society, but are also ready to serve the community.

Subsidiary aims:

- (1) To enable the boys and girls to appreciate the present social order.
- (2) To make them understand that this social order is the result of development.
- (3) To give them ideals of service to the community.
- (4) To help them to form habits of co-operative citizenship.
- (5) To prepare them for a wise use of leisure time.

PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE COURSE SHOULD BE BUILT

- (1) To make each unit of value in itself, not merely an introduction to another unit.
- (2) To give the most immediate values first, not last.
- (3) To build a logical sequence of units, each one more advanced than the last.

PLAN OF THE COURSE

The ideal course for the social sciences (including History) should cover four years of required work of four periods per week. In addition there should be offered at least two years of electives.

9th Grade. "Vocational" or "Economic" Civics, one half year and "Community" Civics, one half year; or "Vocational" Civics one year, if "Community" Civics is given in the 8th Grade.

10th Grade. European History.

11th Grade. Advanced American History.

12th Grade. Problems of Democracy. X

Current Topics. Interpretation of current events should accompany every year of the course.

Electives. Contemporary European History. History of the British Empire. Ancient History.

THE TEACHER

Whether or not we achieve the aims outlined above is entirely dependent upon the teacher. The first and best requisite in a course of training for citizenship is a teacher well grounded in history and the social sciences and having the spirit of the new kind of citizenship. Distributing the units to anybody with a spare hour will defeat every purpose.

2. NINTH GRADE CIVICS

EDWIN W. ADAMS, *Superintendent of Schools, Radnor Township*

It is indeed gratifying to those of us who have been active during the past ten years in the attempt to develop and put into the curriculum of the public schools a course of study in Civics, to find that it has at last been so fully recognized as to win a definite place on the program of so important an educational congress as the one we are attending. The admirable courses which have been presented by Mr. Dunn and Dr. Bernard covering the entire elementary school course and the first two years of the Junior High School, deserve that there should be no falling off in effectiveness of purpose and worthiness of aim in the culminating year of the Junior High School.

I desire to assure you at the outset that the course which I am presenting to you is by no means an "arm chair" course but that it has been worked out in the hot fire of actual class room experimentation.

Presupposition.—There are certain presuppositions which I desire to set down before presenting to you the general plan of the course itself. In the first place, I am presupposing a school organization based upon the six-three-three plan and that the ninth grade is to be considered as the third year of the Junior High School. Again, I must take for granted, a course of study in the elementary grades and first two years of the Junior High School which is continuous and cumulative, such as that which has already been presented to you. I should desire also that we consider such a course as having made provision for vocational guidance in the last half of the sixth grade and for a study of the elements of community welfare in the seventh and eighth grades. I shall also insist that the course presupposes a strong and well equipped teacher who has a civic point of view and is capable of putting over to the pupils, the ideas and ideals involved in the course.

General Theme.—The general theme which has been selected for the work of the year may very properly be called Industrial Civics, or, if we care to be more specific, Industrial and Vocational Civics, with an economic and social background. I would venture to suggest, however, that while the title may seem to be high sounding, we are, nevertheless, dealing with the same problem which has concerned us in the past eight years, that is, Community Civics.

Aims.—I shall attempt to list some of the aims which seem to me to be most fundamental in determining both the nature of the content material of the course and also the method which is to be used in its presentation.

1. To develop in the mind of the child an appreciation of the industrial basis of the communities of which he is a part—local, state and national.

2. To make clear some of the fundamental economic and sociological principles which underlie modern business and to make through these for an appreciation of the social and economic problems of every day life.

3. To develop in the mind of the pupil a proper pride in his local community, his state and the nation, because of the service which each renders through its industrial organizations to the individual, his fellows, and in world relationship.

4. To direct the attention of the pupil toward the various occupations and pursuits which lie open to him, not only in the present with his limited capacity, but in the future when his personal talents may have been developed.

5. To make evident to the pupil the necessity of continuing his education so that he may become a more intelligent worker, more contented, and, therefore, more happy in his vocation, a leader in thought and in action, in his community and a force for social righteousness, in brief, a better citizen.

Content,—The material for the content of the course is to be found in the industrial and vocational activities: first, in the local community, then reaching out through gradually broadening circles into state and national communities. To be more specific, let me enumerate a few of the points which seem to me to be fundamental from the standpoint of content.

I. Industries—The list of industries presented in the course would comprise those which have played a part in giving each of the communities its present position of importance as an industrial community, and also those industries which are of leading importance in various sections of the local community, the state and the nation. The number of such industries as might be enumerated in a definite course of study would, of necessity, be very long. This multiplicity of topics, however, instead of complicating the work of the teacher should result in simplifying it. Comparatively few of the industries could possibly be treated in the course of the school year. From this list, the teacher would select, first, those, which, because of the immediateness of contact, would be the natural point of approach and, second, those which, while of vital importance to the community life, touched it rather indirectly. Then too, the value of the particular topic in the attaining of the aims of the course, would also aid in determining the selection.

II. Occupations—Any worth while study of an industry will, of necessity, make mention of many of the occupations which are found within the industry. It is here that the direct application of the study of the industry will be made to the needs of the individual. It might be well, at this point, to indicate that not only the strictly industrial occupations are intended, but also commercial, professional and others.

III. Economical Principles Underlying Industrial Society—Much of the work suggested for this grade is a continued and more advanced presentation of the topic of Wealth which has been treated in a very simple manner in the eighth grade. Here we are

concerned with the principles underlying the production, distribution, and consumption of Wealth. Problems such as those would arise under a discussion of the sources of Wealth—land, labor, and capital—should be presented gradually during the treatment of the several industries. The problems of transportation and communication, of individual and group, co-operation and business organization, should be considered. A splendid opportunity of driving home lessons of thrift will be found in the study of spending and saving.

IV. Social Problems—It will be impossible to consider adequately any of the problems of modern industrial life without a constant reference to some of the more fundamental sociological principles which are involved. A splendid opportunity is to be found here for the correlation with the community civics work of the seventh and eighth grades. Such problems as the health of the worker, conditions of labor in various industries, hours of labor, personal security, old age pensions, should be treated as they arise out of the study of particular industries and occupations.

V. Business Ethics—Here excellent opportunity is afforded for stressing the ideas of service, interdependence, and co-operation which have constituted the back bone of all civic instruction in the earlier grades. Specific topics, such as, getting along with our fellows, courtesy in business, keeping a position, afford opportunity for valuable instruction. The aim of all this instruction should be to emphasize trustworthiness and co-operation as the essentials to insure success to workers.

VI. Governmental Protection, Promotion, and Control—The community in its organized capacity as a government is vitally concerned in its industrial life. As each industry and occupation is considered points of contact will be discovered between citizens and their individual businesses and the community as a whole. No opportunity should be lost to show the vital interest of the entire group in the welfare of each member of the group. Governmental agencies which exist for the protection, promotion and control of health should be studied in the natural setting of their direct contact with the everyday life interest of the worker. This will carry us out from a consideration of local governmental organization through the state to the nation with its manifold interests and problems.

Method,—In attempting to present a course such as has been suggested, the teacher will be confronted with the difficulty growing out of the apparent complexity of the task proposed. It must ever be kept in mind that the course is one in Community Civics. The topics which are being considered are not to be treated as

geography, or economics, or sociology but as problems in citizenship. It is not intended, by any means, that the work be merely a study of particular industries and occupations. It is not a preparation for a vocation. It is not a quiring of information. It is intended as a definite preparation in citizenship. From the standpoint of general method, the principles which have guided us in our earlier work in Civics should still prevail. The method should be inductive. We must begin with that which is within the comprehension and life interest of the pupil. We must recognize that the boy or girl of the ninth grade has had a real contact with life and that the composite knowledge of the group is no inconsiderable matter. Much of the information which we shall make use of is already in the possession of at least some of the pupils. We shall want each pupil to contribute to the fullest extent, such knowledge as he may have about the particular topic which we are considering. It is then the business of the teacher to organize this mass of information, to assist the pupils to fill in the gaps where they exist and then by every device which they possess to lead the pupils to organize that which they already know. The lesson itself may be largely conventional, varied with readings and reports. From time to time, visits may be made to industrial plants, to commercial centers, to the stock exchange and to institutions of learning where young men and women are definitely prepared for their life work.

The difficulty which underlies the application of a course of study such as has been suggested, is to be found in the aim of the course rather than in the content. It would be a comparatively simple matter to give instruction in the subjects listed, if the object of instruction were the mere requisition of information. The difficulty, however, lies in the fact that we are attempting to develop a point of view, an attitude of mind, a civic consciousness. The crux of the situation lies in the teacher. If our ends are to be attained, the teacher must be an intelligent, broadminded, fair seeking citizen with a civic point of view, capable of inspiring our boys and girls with the desire for rendering a real service to themselves, and to their fellow citizens in the local community, in the state and in the nation.

In conclusion may I present the four words which I believe may be taken as representative of the dominating ideals of civic instruction as we find it developing today for the twelve years. First, morality; second, service; third, cooperation; fourth, leadership. As the course is inductive, I believe that we must find in the upper years of the Junior High School and in the Senior High School as a whole, all four of these principles, but that we must rely on our Senior High School for the development of the real leaders of right,

civic thought and action in our communities. And it therefore behooves us to exercise every possible care that the boys and girls who possess qualities of leadership be urged, encouraged, and assisted in every possible way to continue their education that they may develop into the highest possible type of good citizen.

3. A TOPICAL COURSE IN UNITED STATES HISTORY FOR THE LATTER PART OF THE HIGH SCHOOL COURSE

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, *Columbia University, N. Y.*

All history courses should be topical. There is a place in the earlier grades for studies primarily intended to give simple story, atmosphere, familiarity with persons and events, interest, and the like; incidentally there should be throughout the twelve years of school collateral reading that is selected chiefly for such ends. But from the earliest attempt to organize a connected course to show development, the progress of a society, a topical treatment is essential to adequate results. Only by intelligent grouping can the relation of details to larger movements, as well as the influence of these movements of change upon each other and upon the whole course of development, be indicated.

It does not follow, however, that the topical treatment should be the same for all courses in a given field. On the contrary there can and should be graded progress within the subject, just as there are stages of advancement in mathematics or French. The grading of history with reference to the maturity of the pupil has been admirably treated by Professor Johnson ("Teaching of History, ch. ii.), who shows that "Particular facts relating to external conditions and activities are plainly the A B C's of history * * * * * Advanced history is history presented in the form of general concepts." There is progress from "concrete examples" to "collective or general facts." Another kind of advancement may follow this progress described by Professor Johnson, however, an advancement based upon increasing mastery of the materials as well as upon ability to grasp general facts. What can be done in the latter part of the high school will depend upon what has been done in the preceding grades.

What kind of progress is desirable as well as possible? should be the next question. The educators of today are more and more insisting that history should be so taught that it may assist one in

understanding the society of which he is a part, and contribute to his ability to attack the problems with which that society must deal. Some extremists propose that the ordered study of historical development be abandoned entirely in favor of an incidental study of the "back-ground" of particular problems that arise in connection with "projects" in civics, geography, industrial arts, or current events. Such a plan would sacrifice the distinctive contribution which history has to make to education—the conception of an ever-changing society in which the various factors of influence (economic, social, political, geographic, personal, etc.) are intimately related as parts of one complex whole. It would inevitably leave information scrappy and impressions confused, as to how our modern world came to be as it is. At the same time it must be admitted that if history is to have a practical value for citizenship aside from the general conceptions and attitudes that it may create, a usefulness for attacking particular problems that confront the citizen, the demand will come in connection with particular problems like foreign relations (or more specifically, the Monroe Doctrine, say), protective tariff, political parties, labor problems, transportation, or some phase of social reform.

There are, in fact, two sets of aims, both desirable, both essential to the best practical training that the subject can offer. There should be a conception of society developing (changing in some ways for the better and in some for the worse) and of the inter-relations of all the varied activities of man; but there should also be ready knowledge of the facts about origins and development behind particular current situations and problems, the habit of using this mode of approach, and the ability to do it efficiently.

These two things cannot be adequately done in the same course in the same year (at least with present time allotments), though much can be accomplished by an intelligently planned series of topical reviews at the end of the course. But they can be accomplished when the same field is covered successively in different years. American history is now taught both in the elementary and the secondary school, usually for several years in all. The proposals of the new Committee of Eight provide for American history in grades III to VI (preceded by local history), and for considerable if not dominant attention to that field in connection with the world survey suggested for grades VII-VIII. Even with less extended study of the American field in the earlier grades, is it not wasteful to go through the same old type of general survey and epitome in the last year of the high school? It is a well known fact that children weary of this endless repetition, reviewing in a little more mature way the same old material.

Real progress might be made both in knowledge of history and in the practical value of historical study for civic education, not to mention fresh interest and enthusiasm, if in the several cycles there were introduced not only some new topics but radically different organizations of the field. It should be possible to assume by the end of the high school course that the pupil has some useable knowledge of the general story of American history, of its main characters and events. A general familiarity, even in the absence of intimate or thorough mastery, would suffice as a basis for new modes of attack in the field. The earlier work should, moreover, provide a topical grouping around interpretative themes within the large periods into which the whole development naturally falls, thus revealing the relations of men and events to the main tendencies of the times. Upon such a foundation could be built a final course devoted exclusively to topics, either large or small, running throughout the whole field necessary to study completely their origin and development.

The actual topics for such a course should be selected only after considerable study and discussion by experts both in the field of scholarship and of teaching. The problem will be to find the specific topics which it will be most serviceable to study intensively in the genetic way proposed. Can the work be done most profitably with rather large topics, like "Economic and Industrial Development," "Foreign Relations," "Progress of Democracy," "The American People," and "American Ideals," or much smaller units like the development of transportation, inventions, tariff, political parties, domestic commerce, foreign commerce, money and finance, immigration, trusts, the Monroe doctrine? Each plan will have its advantages and disadvantages, and in either case the overlapping will be endless, more so in the American field than in any other perhaps. My own preference would be for a study based primarily on a few large topics, perhaps six to ten; followed by, or perhaps accompanied by, studies of the smaller, specific problems growing out of regular classroom work with current events.

The subject is not one that justifies dogmatism. It needs a good deal of careful study of the materials and carefully-planned, properly controlled experiment in the classroom. It must be realized that a topical course for the latter part of the high school cannot be safely planned by itself, but only with reference to what has gone before, and consequently it may become necessary to introduce such courses gradually until properly prepared students are ready to realize the full possibilities. With such precautions, it seems to me that the case is very strong for such a topical course as has been suggested. If intelligently carried out it promises to

improve markedly the actual knowledge of the subject, and definitely to increase its value for civic education by developing the habit of viewing current problems in relation to their historic background and the equipment for making the studies of the citizen efficient.

4. THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE 12TH GRADE

EDGAR DAWSON, *Hunter College, N. Y.*

AN ABSTRACT.

I take it that the problems of democracy may be, in the main, economic and sociological; and that our organization of the community for their solution is a matter of politics, government or political science. For I should define political science as the statement of our systematic knowledge of the best methods of organization through which public opinion, the popular will, may be expressed in public administration.

Most of our problems of democracy are age long problems; and our teaching of them should leave in the mind of the pupil the fact that, while they may not be insoluble, we must be patient with the efforts being made for their solution. He must be trained to reserve his judgment, to seek information, to organize with others in the formation of opinion, to distrust the cocksure demagogue and soap-box orator, to trust the expert and the scholar to look back into history for similar phenomena to those of his day and learn lessons from the past.

It has been recommended that we ask for a whole year of required economics and a whole year of American history and government. This seems to me an impracticable proposal. In the first place, the committees who are studying the matter of organization of the high school are disposed to put the American history into the 11th grade. In the second place, it seems a little unreasonable to ask for two-fifths of the pupils time in the 12th grade for the social studies, and other departments will become justly impatient of us if we seem to them to be grasping. In the third place, it is likely that one year of four or five periods a week will prove to be enough to state our case if our teachers are trained and if our work is well organized for purposes of efficient instruction.

The year devoted to the social studies should be divided about in two, the first half being given to problems of economics and sociology; the second half to methods of organization. But there may be two opinions about this method of arrangement. Some ask that the problems and the organization be taught together. While I cannot see the wisdom of this arrangement, I believe that the trained teacher who believes in it had better follow his own bent in the matter.

Among the subjects to be taken up in the first part of the year, whether this part overrun the half or not, would be first, our resources of land, forests, streams, minerals, and the like; second, our industrial organization and the problems of labor supply and organization, the problem of the health of the worker and his safety, the problem of credit and capital; third, our facilities for transportation and communication, with the problems of monopoly control, rate adjustment, and the like; fourth, our facilities for education and our methods for their improvement; fifth, our arrangements for the care of those who cannot or will not care for themselves. These problems are mentioned, of course, merely to illustrate the sort of material that should be placed in this first part of the year. They should be taught as a matter of information, it is true, and every citizen should be informed about them; but the main use to be derived from the teaching of them is the appreciation by the pupil of the difficulties of modern society, its complexity, our need of the wisest organization obtainable and of the best trained experts that we can produce.

In the second half of the year, or somewhat less than half, we come to the organization of the community for purposes of cooperation in the solution of these problems. Here, I maintain, the basic principles of political science can be taught and that with great profit. We should teach first the principles of our government in so far as these principles are sound,—the efficacy of representative institutions, confidence in law and its administration even when its administration does not reach the point of super-human perfection, willingness to support the system of private property as the best means of stimulating energy and constructive economic thought; but we should not be satisfied with teaching things as they are. The science of politics tells us that much of our organization is defective having been based on the now discredited theory of the separation of powers. Our scholars in this field are in almost absolute agreement on certain changes that should be made in our governments,—particularly those of the states and cities. The proposals for these changes are based in the most careful study and analysis of political experience; and they should be taught in the schools. Among them are the short ballot,

executive budget, departmental organization in the state and city governments with consolidation of our numerous boards, commissions, and other loose ends of irresponsibility and extravagance. It is useless here to go into any discussion of the content of such a course, and time is not available for it; these topics are mentioned only to illustrate the contention that the soundest principles of democratic organization should be taught in the last year of the high school.

The graduates of the high schools are to be our leaders. The college and university get so small a proportion of our growing citizens that their output is not sufficient. We must depend on the work of the high schools to put into the public mind the main principles that we want incorporated in our public life. If we want the executive budget it must be taught in the high school and if we do so teach it will come even though it may be slow in doing so. But to recur to the first part of the year, we cannot interest the pupils in these questions of organization unless we catch their attention with the problems for the solution of which the organization is to be maintained.

This teaching may be made concrete and constructive. It should never be destructive or generally critical. A course in government which does not result in an abiding faith in the future of democracy is a curse, and any teacher who is not an enthusiast for organized representative government should never be allowed to conduct a recitation in history, economics, or government if he can be prevented from doing so. The pessimist and the critic with a disorganized or unorganized mind is a canker in any community, and to make a teacher of him merely helps him to spread his disease. The scholars in the field of government have developed and published a model city charter. A model state constitution is in process of preparation. These documents will not be the dreams of the fanatic or the fragile webs of the theorist; but they will be the result of joint work on the part of careful, trained, practical men, and they will be based on the best experience now available. They should be taught as the basis of our future political thought.

The teacher should not teach as political science the opinions of a few. He should be able to differentiate between what is accepted by a large majority, possibly of all, the scholars in his field, on the one hand, and the proposals of a few on the other. Above all things the teacher should not air his personal opinions to his classes without the most careful statement that they are merely his personal opinions. It is undesirable for him to do so even then, for what we need is citizens who look to generalizations based on cooperative scientific effort, only through such teaching can democracy be made safe from the demagogue.

And so we come to the basic fact of all teaching. The course depends on the teacher; the teacher is the course. To paraphrase a statement made in other connections. If I may control the training of the teachers, let anyone who will write the course of study. Give us teachers soundly trained in the principles of government and in the problems we have to solve, and I shall guarantee the results. Without such teachers, all the course making is futile waste of time and effort.

5. SOME PRINCIPLES OF METHOD IN TEACHING HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

C. H. FISHER, *State Normal School, West Chester*

History for history's sake has no place in the public school system. The impression left upon a child by a fact in history is more important than the fact itself. The changes made in the individual are the final test in the teaching of any subject. There has been too much teaching of history and the social sciences for mere historical information and a knowledge of the machinery of government and of the organization of society. The events of the last few years have shown us that our people have not learned to think in these subjects. The mere amassing of information apart from the direct interests of life will never make anyone think in these subjects.

We have set up a dualism between subject-matter and method. We rearrange the content of our courses and then superimpose method upon that content. It is as though mind and the world of things were two separate entities instead of two parts of the same thing that are acting and reacting upon each other. Dewey says, "Never is method something outside of the material. Method in any case is but an effective way of employing some material for some end. Method means that arrangement of subject-matter which makes it most effective in use." History and social science teachers are guilty of the same fundamental error that Latin and Mathematics teachers commit. They rearrange the content of their courses, change the emphasis of this or that, and improve the methods of instruction, but fail to examine the fundamental aims of High School education that may be promoted by their subject-matter.

The first essential in any undertaking is to determine what one wants to accomplish. Then select the materials that will aid in the accomplishment and let the methods be the most effective that will bring about the desired ends. The ends are the fundamental social

aims of education, namely ethical efficiency, health efficiency, home-making efficiency, vocational efficiency, political efficiency, social service, use of individual leisure, and social intercourse. The psychological aspect of the ends sought are expressed in certain controls through which the social aims are to be accomplished. Such controls are ideals, attitudes, appreciation, opinions, points-of-view, vocabulary control, a many-sidedness of knowledge control, habit control, and transfer.

An analysis of these aims will show little habit control, considerable vocabulary control, a great deal of many-sidedness of knowledge, but most important of all the great possibilities for the development of ideals, attitudes, appreciations, opinions, and points of view. Transfer is possible when the conditions of transfer are met. Transfer can be made reasonably certain because the subject-matter of history and the social sciences can be related to real life situations. Unless there is transfer to life's activities these subjects are taught to no purpose.

The analysis shows that those who would stress to the exclusion of all else the social aspects of history, namely, an understanding of the present by the past would eliminate the most important aspects of history, such as, the development of ideals, attitudes, appreciations, opinions, and points-of-view. These latter aims can be realized only in an accumulative way and through an emotional appeal. There must be a careful selection of material and situations that make an emotional appeal.

The teaching of a subject like Problems of American Democracy or Civics in the last year of a four-year course will not result in accumulative impressions so desirable for the development of ideals, attitudes, etc. I believe that a careful analysis will show that the mere chronological arrangement of this phase or that phase of history and the social sciences will not result in desirable aims of education. I would prefer to use the term social science to include history, economics, sociological, political science, civics, and social problems and then disregarding these subjects, as such, select material from any of these sources that has a reasonable guarantee upon careful analysis of accomplishing the desirable social and psychological aims of education.

One might say that there would be no history, economics or sociology left but for this I have no concern. The chief concern is that desirable ends of education may be realized in our citizenship rather than that certain subjects should be kept intact. If our people are to learn to think by means of the social sciences then the approach must be such as will make them think. Thinking involves a real situation that presents an actual difficulty or problem to the learner. I quote again from Dewey, "The true starting point

of history is always some present situation with its problems. A systematized branch of knowledge instead of furnishing a starting point for learning, marks out a consummation."

The chronology and logic of the social sciences must give way whenever they preclude the possibility of real thinking. On the other hand chronology and logic are to be retained whenever they serve useful purposes. Out of it all should come principles, chronology, and sequence in so far as they are a desirable asset in one's thinking but as Dewey says this is the consummation and not the starting point. History, economics, sociology and political science as such must be reserved for older and more mature students. A primary obligation rests upon the public high schools to serve the larger values of education rather than to teach subjects as subjects.

While much that has been said may seem to be indefinite yet definiteness is in the background with respect to desirable social and psychological aims of education. More detailed analysis will have to be made than is here possible. Text-books will have to be provided as guides for teachers and along with text-books there ought to be manuals for teachers that would be suggestive of methods. These things could be done only by a consensus of opinion among competent persons, such as, historians, teachers, and educational theorists.

ENGLISH



SUBJECT: LITERATURE IN SCHOOL

(I) THE AIMS IN TEACHING LITERATURE IN THE GRADES
AND HIGH SCHOOLS.

FRED L. HOMER, *Schenley High School, Pittsburgh*

In discussing this subject I shall confine myself chiefly to the problem of the high school. I have never taught in any grade school, except an ungraded country school, so I do not feel competent to discuss grade school problems in detail. I do, however, think that in the grades the aim should be two-fold: to have the children learn stories and to have them learn poetry by heart. There should be no more study than is necessary to enable them to reproduce the great stories of the world, and especially of America (*Hiawatha*, for example); and to fill their memories with a great many poems by Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and other American poets that they will not fully understand at the time but which they should know as they know their multiplication table. I find many high school seniors who have never read the great American classics such as "*Hiawatha*" and "*Evangeline*" and "*Snowbound*" and as to being able to quote them, that is not to be thought of. We hear a great deal about Americanization of foreigners these days. We need a propaganda to encourage the Americanization of Americans. This filling the mind with stories and verses will lay the necessary foundation for the work in the high school. Let us now see what the aims of that work should be. Perhaps I can best approach the subject by pointing out what the aims should not be.

What it is Not:

1. It is not to acquaint the pupil with a large body of literature—to enrich his nature and give him culture by a hasty reading of many classics. For most boys and girls such reading begins in misapprehension and ends in superficiality.

2. It is not to acquaint the pupil with the various literary forms and to encourage in him the idea that he is a competent literary critic. He should not be taught to compare Milton with Shakespeare or the period of Italian with that of French influence. Much of the time spent on literary forms and types and characteristics and characters is time and effort worse than wasted. The pupil has not the information or the maturity of mind necessary to such discussions and furthermore such methods mislead the student into thinking that his main business is to classify and discuss rather than understand and appreciate a book.

3. It is not primarily to amuse and give pleasure to the pupils though this is perhaps the prevalent idea. It seems to be assumed that since most young people are fond of reading (*The Saturday Evening Post*, say) that therefore they are to be entertained, though in a more refined and highbrow way in the literature classroom. We are told that the atmosphere of the literature classroom, must be cheerful and free from constraint so that the pupil will imbibe a love of good literature. True, the atmosphere of the literature classroom should be cheerful—but in exactly the same sense that the atmosphere of the algebra classroom should be. True, the pupils should love the subject of literature but exactly just as they should love the study of science.

It is degrading the noble subject of literature to conceive its aim as that of inspiring a love by means of entertainment. If we think more worthily of our subject we shall be less anxious to make pupils love it by making it entertaining and delightful.

What then, should we aim at? In the first place, we should aim to inculcate worthy ideals. But not too much should be expected along this line. The chief teacher and developer of ideals must always be the home and home influence. But as “We all, with open face, beholding as in a glass the glory of the Lord are changed into the same image,” inevitably, we may hope that something of the unselfishness of Henry Esmond, something of the patience of Silas Marner, something of the love of all created things of the converted Ancient Mariner will become a part of our pupils’ lives.

Another aim should be that enlargement of heart and broadening of mind that comes from a knowledge of human life obtained through books; especially the knowledge of character gained through great fiction such as “Henry Esmond” or drama such as “*Macbeth*;” and of the remote in time and space such as comes through “*Sohrab and Rustum*” or the “*Ancient Mariner*” or “*Ivanhoe*.” “Home-keeping youths have very homely wits,” and next to travel itself and long life, books dealing with the past and the distant are the best broadeners and deepeners of the youthful mind.

Another equally important aim, though its benefits are less immediately evident than the foregoing, is the furnishing of an outlet to the emotions, which is a “balm of hurt minds” and one of the strongest desires of a human being, as Professor Smith points out in his excellent book, “What can Literature do for me.” This outlet is found in the words of the great writers who through the ages have given most adequate expression to our deepest human emotions. There are times when only Shakespeare’s “How weary stale,” etc. can express our mental and moral weariness; or Milton’s “Sober certainty of” etc. our perfect happiness. Sometimes we need to remember Lowell’s “No mud” etc. and still again “They also serve,”

etc. Nowadays especially we need to be sure "That from these honored dead" etc. and many many times we need the comforting assurance "I know not where" etc. This outlet to our emotions and this "balm of hurt mines" can only be obtained by learning by heart the great passages in literature. Hence the need of much memorizing. The pupils will not at the times fully realize the beauty or the power of the lines memorized but that is no reason why they should not learn them. Once get the great words firmly fixed in their minds and in later life they will find abundant comfort in them.

Most important of all our aims should be that of developing power on the part of our pupils—the power of understanding and appreciating the printed page. And it must be understood as absolutely fundamental that the *understanding* precedes the *appreciation*. And this understanding can be gained in only one way, not by wide reading, not by courses in appreciation, not by pointing out how beautiful a passage is—but only by the hardest kind of study. John Ruskin may have said many foolish and absurd things, but he was eternally right when he said that the great society of the dead can be entered only by the hardest kind of labor—that the student must dig as the miner digs for gold, that he must bring to bear his care, wit, and learning upon the meaning of every word. There is no other way. And yet how little is it used. We read many classics and discuss them, and outline them, and write character-sketches about them, and do everything but the one thing needful—study them word for word to get the author's meaning, so we may understand them. The need for this is two-fold. In the first place, our pupils need the training. They cannot read a paragraph containing new or unusual ideas and reproduce accurately the contents. How can they be good citizens of a democracy when they cannot understand the problems confronting them? I believe the fundamental need of our schools is to develop greater clearness and accuracy in thinking—and I believe the study of a great piece of literature, such as "Macbeth" or "Sesame and Lilies" is one of the best ways to develop that power.

In the second place, this intensive study is needed to secure that *understanding* which means *appreciation*. I believe profoundly that if pupils dislike good literature it is generally because they do not understand it. I profoundly distrust the doctrine that one can appreciate without understanding. I will admit one may *enjoy* either "Macbeth" or "Diamond Dick" or the "movies" without understanding them. But one *cannot* appreciate Shakespeare or Milton without understanding him and that means the hardest kind of study. If we would have our young people learning to love and enjoy good books we must first train them to understand good books. As I said before, Ruskin is eternally right—there is no other way.

And this need of understanding is especially true of poetry—for there they must understand not merely the difficult subject-matter but the form as well. I submit that pupils should be taught versification—not superficially but most thoroughly. Only so can they learn to appreciate good poetry. For rhythm is fundamental in verse even in free verse, and I am convinced that much of the dislike and supposed dislike of poetry is due entirely to lack of training to appreciate the form as well as the meaning. Every year I find seniors in high school who do not know that Shakespeare's plays are poetry. The music of Antony's or Portia's great speeches is entirely lost upon them. When the subject-matter and the verse-form are both understood, good poetry will be appreciated by the average young person. Walter Bagehot speaks in one of his literary essays of "a vague conviction that poetry is but one of the many amusements for the enjoying classes, for the lighter hours of all classes. The mere notion, the bare idea, that poetry is a deep thing, a teaching thing, the most surely and wisely elevating of human things, is even now to the coarse public mind nearly unknown."

I am sure the idea of the value of poetry is not unknown to those present and so I make a special plea for a thorough teaching of verse forms as a means of appreciating poetry.

But whether prose or verse be studied, a mastery of the author's meaning is the only road to understanding and appreciating; and it is the only method which will so train our young people as to make them worthy citizens in a great democracy. Let us aim to inspire our pupils with noble ideals, let us aim to enlarge their horizon and increase their knowledge, let us supply them with an outlet for their emotions and a balm for their hurt minds, above all, let us so train them that they will be able for themselves to associate with the great company of "saints and sages and poets and scholars who are all gone into the world of light" and so be fitted to do their share in leaving the world better than they found it.

READING THE CLASSICS

(2) MRS. ELIZABETH LODOR MERCHANT, *Wm. Penn High School, Philadelphia*

Literature is a universal requirement in secondary school courses. What are its claims to protection? Chiefly the following: (1) It embodies and transmits social values and ethical standards; it is the distilled wisdom of the centuries; (2) It is the vehicle of beauty as well as of truth; (3) It creates interest in everyday life by interpreting the commonplace; thus it enriches the individual life.

On what basis should books for a secondary school course be selected to attain these ends? The selection should be determined by the range of sympathy and imagination of adolescent minds, because on no other basis can intimacy with books develop. Thought that belongs to maturity is not accessible to inexperience. David cannot fight in Saul's armor.

A liberal prescribed course from the English classics has definite advantages in securing these ends. (1) It will yield the best body of human experience—social and ethical. (2) It will give the highest types of beauty. (3) It will insure variety of literary types. (4) It will to some extent guard against courses given for the pleasure of the instructor rather than for the benefit of the class. (5) It will give a common denominator for use of higher institutions.

There are also disadvantages to be considered. (1) Being subject to examination, it exalts examination possibilities and sacrifices inspiration. (2) It hampers instructors in the use of contemporary literature (books and magazines). (3) It has a tendency to draw to itself books that are not in the range of adolescent minds—just because they are classics.

Balancing these considerations, we may agree to keep a considerable body of classic reading and to omit certain definite pieces of writing.

Omit:

1. Burke's Conciliation in favor of Washington's and Lincoln's writings.
2. Milton's Minor Poems in favor of selected poems from Palgrave's Golden Treasury.
3. Carlyle's Burns and, if released by College Entrance Board, Macaulay's Johnson. Substitute familiar essays (Lamb and Stevenson) and contemporary magazine writing.
4. Most literature of the so-called formal period: Boswell's Johnson, Pope, Addison, etc.

Read:

1. Old Testament Stories, Iliad, Odyssey, Aeneid, Norse Tales, Song of Roland, Arabian Nights, Fairy Tales and Folk Lore, etc. Cultural background material.
2. Shakespeare and other dramatists; She Stoops to Conquer, Rivals.
3. Novels and romances: Ivanhoe, David Copperfield, Silas Marner, Lorna Doone, House of Seven Gables, etc.
4. Biography and Essay: Franklin's Autobiography, Stevenson's Travels with a Donkey, etc.
5. Poetry: Tennyson's Idylls, selected lyrics and narrative poems (Wordsworth, Keats, Shelley, Scott, Goldsmith, etc.), American poetry.

(3) WHAT IS THE PLACE OF LIVING WRITERS IN OUR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES?

HAROLD C. GODDARD, *Swarthmore College*

The success of the democratic experiment we are making depends on the education of the people. No education deserves the name that is not both vocational and liberal. But a liberal education is impossible without contact with the art of one's time. Contact with the classics is not enough, for only as the present is made the key to the past can the past become the key to the present. This puts us in a dilemma. Either we must teach contemporary literature in our high schools, or, if our youth are not old enough for it, we must keep them in school until they are. Apparently the first alternative is the only present possible one.

But the teaching of contemporary literature in the high school involves two immense difficulties. (1) No one is entitled to decide for any one else who our greatest living writers are. (2) Contemporary literature, like all things creative, is explosive; it bristles with criticism of things as they are. But dangerous as it will seem to some to let our youth listen to our contemporary poets and prophets, it is immeasurably more dangerous not to let them listen. The solution of the difficulty lies in the character of the teachers. They must be men and women of exceptional personality and social vision. Get teachers of this sort, and then leave them free to teach whatever literature they feel an enthusiasm for. The variety to which this method will give rise will ensure the preservation of that most precious of all things in a democracy: intellectual liberty. For liberty and individuality are two names for the same thing.

SUBJECT: COMPOSITION AND METHODS

(1) WHAT HAVE WE A RIGHT TO EXPECT AS A RESULT OF OUR INSTRUCTION IN COMPOSITION?

JOHN BERKEMA, *Technical High School, McKeesport*

Place of English in the Modern High School. In the past we were content to style English as "power to appreciate literature." We did not care for ordinary accuracy and conventional accuracy. Many held this theory: "after matters of technique have become so easy that we need to give them little attention, we may seek for something original to say." Others have said, "when these elements of literary

construction are once understood, the problem of composition is merely that of their affective combination." Now we demand composition to be the teaching of plain essentials of decent style. English compositions must be thought of as social in content, social in methods of acquirements.

Every pupil must speak or write to or for somebody with a real desire to inform, persuade, inspire, or entertain. This is the function of composition in the modern high school, namely, to acquire accuracy, fluency, and clearness of expression of thought.

The expression in speech includes:

1. Ability to answer clearly, briefly, and exactly any question on which one has the necessary information.
2. Ability to join in an informal discussion, contributing one's share of information without wandering from the point under discussion.

Expression in writing includes:

1. Ability to write a courteous letter according to the forms in general use.
2. Ability to compose a clear and readable paragraph on familiar subject matter.

Based on these principles the composition work, generally speaking, must be correct as to formal details, as, correct spelling, correctness in grammar and idiom, and the observance of the ordinary rules for capitals and marks of punctuation. The pupil at all times must be filled with a desire to arouse some interest, idea, or feeling in his hearer or reader. He should acquire a concise and vigorous style, a firmness and flexibility in constructing sentences and paragraphs.

Some essentials we have a right to expect in our composition work:

I. Selection of a subject suitable to the ability and interest of the pupil. The aim here should be to train the pupil to compose a clear and readable paragraph on familiar subject matter, with due observance of unity and order. The pupil should select subjects that are familiar to him, and which lend themselves to treatment by contrast, by comparison, by example, by detail. The pupil must feel he has something to say on some subject within the range of his experience. Each composition should show progress in the pupil's ability to express himself. If the material for composition work is taken from the experience of pupil, we may rightly expect him to give attention to correctness rather than to mastery of thought, to write or speak convincingly by reason of his own interest, to give some attention to the arrangement and presentation of his thoughts in a manner likely to arouse interest in others.

II. The place of letter writing in composition. "The letter is an indispensable agency of civilization." Letter writing is the form of writing the pupil will use most frequently. Klapper writes: "In the workaday world one writes because he is actuated by two conditions: (1) He has something to say. (2) He has someone to whom to say it."

Aims we should hold up to and require of our pupils.

- (1) The pupil should determine what he wants—how he wants it.
- (2) He should write neatly and punctuate correctly.
- (3) His full address should be given—his signature should be legible.
- (4) He should paragraph each new matter of business and each item in a bill of goods.
- (5) He should examine the sentence structure to make sure he has said exactly what he has wished to say.

III. Some minimum essentials in Grammar, Punctuation, Capitalization, and Spelling.

(I) *Grammar.*

Avoidance of:

- (a) Amputated members of sentences, i. e., Clauses and phrases written as sentences.
- (b) Gross disagreement between verb and subject.
- (c) Gross error in case, i. e., objective case as subject.
- (d) Stringy compound sentences, members joined by "ands" and "buts."
- (e) Long incoherent sentences thrown together without an apparent plan.
- (f) Dangling participial phrases.
- (g) Shift in tense.
- (h) Extreme wordiness.

(II) *Capitalization.*

- (a) To begin with capitals, sentences, proper names, names of months and days, first word in lines of poetry, nouns and adjectives of language and race.
- (b) Not to begin with capitals, names of the seasons or points of the compass.

(III) *Punctuation.*

Periods:

- (a) 1. At end of sentence.
2. At end of Abbreviations.
- (b) Question marks at end of interrogative sentences.

(c) Commas:

1. To set off words of address.
2. To set off appositives.
3. To separate words of a series.
4. To set off absolute phrases.

(IV) *Spelling.*

1. The rule explaining suffixes and prefixes.
2. The rule for *ei* and *ie*, and in *believe, receive*.
3. The rule for doubling of a final consonant.
4. The rule for change of final *y*.
5. The rule for final *e* before a suffix.
6. Words as—to, too, two; there, their; its, it's.

IV. Methods to be pursued:

1. Have class exercises in the organization of material.
2. Have pupils hand in outlines of work covered in literature and in completed themes.
3. Have written work done in the classroom under supervision of teacher.
4. Have definite and stated testing of the pupils' progress as to clearness through unity and coherence.
5. Have oral composition precede written composition on subject under discussion.

V. Results to be expected from such study:

1. Accuracy of observation and vividness of imagination.
2. Clear and logical thinking.
3. A sense of order and completeness.
4. Adoption of subject matter to a particular audience.
5. Observances of standard usage in matters of external form.

(2) ELIMINATION OF NON ESSENTIALS IN THE TEACHING
OF ENGLISH

MARY B. FONTAINE, *Supervisor of English, Charleston, W. Va.*

- I. The organization of courses of English in American schools should be centred around a core of Americanism. All the teaching of the mother tongue should make a real contribution to the life needs of American citizens.

- II. Causes of the present inefficiency of the teaching of English:
 - 1. Lack of trained teachers.
 - 2. Lack of effective supervision, which would to some extent overcome the disadvantage of No. 1.
 - 3. Clinging to traditional courses of study which include much material not relevant to present day life.
 - 4. Failure to unify the work of English teaching in such a way that each contribution functions in the lives of students. Under this head is included the formal teaching of such subjects as grammar, spelling, composition, etc.
 - 5. Lack of a consistent viewpoint from which the courses in English from the primary school through the secondary are planned.
- III. Essentials in the teaching of English:
 - 1. A vital acquaintance on the part of each school child with the literature that generates ideals and reveals new vistas of life.
 - 2. A love and respect for the mother tongue that will show itself in careful and adequate expression. The language of the street cannot be accepted as the standard of American speech.
 - 3. Such a study of organization that children will gain power to express in speech and in writing clearly and forcibly whatever presses for expression. Such expression should be child-like and simple, and free from affected forms.
 - 4. A thorough mastery of the spelling of the written vocabulary, of essential punctuation marks, capitals, and letter forms.
 - 5. A knowledge of those elements of grammar that are useful in mastering the sentence and in acquainting pupils with the standard of accepted usage.
- IV. Agreement on these essentials leads to the elimination of the following non-essentials:
 - 1. Formal work in speech that does not vitally connect up with children's usage, such as filling of blanks in sentences, the formal teaching of grammar that has no application to written composition and daily usage.
 - 2. In teaching literature we should omit those classics that do not have a message for boys and girls of today. The dry-as-dust method of analysis that dissects and desiccates the literary selection studied is wasteful of time and destructive of real interest in literature.

3. Oral composition of a formal type, often given indistinctly and without real interest on the part of either speaker or audience. Instead of this wasteful procedure we should use well motivated, socialized situations, in which students have the opportunity to apply the principles of good talking.
4. Formal rhetorical principles, such as the distinction of the four forms of discourse, formal development of paragraphs. Composition in which the needs of students lead them to seek the best ways of expressing their thought are more economical than such formal exercises.

(3) THE PLACE OF THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION IN THE ENGLISH CLASS

W. E. STRAWINSKI, *Technical High School, Harrisburg*

The discussion was opened by the reading of excerpts from the writings of Dr. Dewey and Dr. Dutton, and others, of which the following are representative:

“How is the recitation conducted so as to afford opportunity for interchange of experience and knowledge for the benefit of others, instead of serving merely as a test by the teacher of knowledge acquired?” (Dr. Dewey).

“Is the acquisition of knowledge of such tremendous importance that the social code is to be constantly violated in the schoolroom?

..... The recitation affords a fine opportunity for cooperation and mutual assistance. The teacher should not be too prominent. Each pupil should participate, every one should make his contribution.” (Dr. Dutton).

“The best preparation for citizenship is to live and practice in the school those principles that characterize the good citizen.” (Dr. Dutton).

Characteristics of the socialized recitation were enumerated as follows:

1. Lifelike, free of needless artificial restraint, natural, vitalized.
2. Individual responsibility for contributing to the recitation.
3. Cooperation for mutual benefit, laboring together at something worth while.
4. Practice in deeds of good citizenship, leading and following.

To determine the place of the socialized recitation in the English class, it is advisable to contrast the socialized with the academic method. For this purpose, the differences cited by Professor C. J. Thompson, of the Cleveland High School, were outlined and presented in chart form. (The full report of a study of the socialized method in written composition appears in the February, 1919, issue of *The School Review*). This study proves the superiority of the socialized method over the academic method in the case of two groups in the Freshman class of the Cleveland High School.

SOCIALIZED.	DIFFERENCES	ACADEMIC.
Genuine Varying Social Situations Vitalized	1. Nature of situations in which learners are placed.	Series of practice periods in writing correct and effective English.
Primarily Interest a social Please problem to Benefit Convince	2. Nature of problems growing out of such situations.	Correctness Fluency To secure Unity Coherence Proportion etc.
Through study of Mechanics Elementary principles of general excellence		Through study of Mechanics Elementary principles of general excellence
A suitable letter	3. Form of written work.	Theme: name, section, date, margin, etc.
Constant Reply to a letter Read by classmates	4. Nature and amount of publicity given themes.	Occasional Read by teacher Best themes read to class
Communicate, interest, please, benefit, convince	5. Controlling and directing the attention of learner.	Attention directed towards elements of excellence: clearness, correctness, fluency, unity, etc.
Mechanics and elementary principles of general excellence <i>as means</i> .		Broaden and fix principles of general excellence and knowledge of mechanics.
		To write correct English on assigned topics.
Story-teller, teacher, community worker (Leonard)	6. Nature of the stimuli which drive the learner to make the best use of his practice period.	Teacher's approval and a good grade.
Interest, please, benefit, convince, win approval of classmates		Vague notion that he is developing power of self-expression in correct English.
Learn by doing		Self-realization.
Consciousness of the utility and satisfying effect of the procedure		
Social realization		
Teacher's approval and a good grade		

The problem of organization was briefly considered under four heads: parliamentary, round table, absence of formal organization, teacher as leader.

The activity of the teacher was outlined as follows:

1. Lays general plans, provides for social situations.
2. Establishes, directly or indirectly, definite aims.
3. Acts as arbiter, court of last resort.
4. Is the soul of the work, the guiding personality.

Two personal convictions were presented by the one who opened the discussion:

1. The socialized recitation affords a splendid opportunity for "infiltration," that is making the English class in composition the clearing-house for knowledge acquired in other studies.
2. The socialized recitation, especially in English, should be the laboratory for training for citizenship.

(4) THE LIBRARY AS AN AID TO THE TEACHER OF ENGLISH

MARY JANE CHAMBERS. *Latimer Junior High School, Pittsburgh*

The help that the library can give the English department is based on common aims. Both aim (1) to cultivate the love for good books; (2) to develop the power to use books intelligently; (3) to "socialize knowledge" gained in schools or from books.

In teaching literature the teacher of English needs aid from the library because of the limitations of his time, of his schedule, of his supplementary equipment. The library can furnish the help through guidance of individual students and through supplementary material, which includes book lists, stereoscopic and other pictures, posters and open shelves.

In the composition work, the library and the English department are alike interested in training students to collect, organize and evaluate data secured from books and magazines. This necessitates the intelligent handling of printed data and requires training in the use of indexes, tables of content, the Readers' Guide, encyclopedias, systems of classification, and requires knowledge of the character and purposes of important periodicals. The preliminary training for such use of books can be given in the classroom; the practice must be given in the library. The library must be considered the laboratory of the composition class.

The aid given by the library in instilling the love for good books and in developing the power to use reference books intelligently helps in attaining the third aim mentioned:—the training of boys and girls who realize that the knowledge gained in the classroom is directly related to the world and who as adults will use books and libraries as means of collecting, organizing and evaluating data necessary to form sound judgments.

What are the problems? In the elementary school the problem of bringing together the child and the book is solved partly by the loan collections sent to the school, partly by the story hours held in the school by the librarians, partly by trips to the children's department. In the high school the problem of the use of the public library is different. In the high school the students are old enough to go to the public library, but the dependence of the English class upon the public library presents its own problems:—the lack of opportunity to use the library because of employment of students after school, the need of supervision of students at work, the difficulty of unifying two distinct institutions under separate control. These problems are so serious that it is generally admitted that the high school needs its own library. The problem of its support and equipment must be considered as one of the questions of high school administration. The rural school presents another problem, serious because of the distance from the aid of the public library and because of the need of country boys and girls. The question of local and state support and supervision should be included among the problems of rural education.

Without adequate library aid the teacher of English suffers from poverty of supplementary books, the inability to use the laboratory method in getting materials for composition, and the lack of opportunity to help students form the habit of using a library.

SUBJECT: ORAL ENGLISH

(1) ON IMPROVING THE SPEECH HABITS OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

OLIVE ELY HART, *South Philadelphia High School*

The problem of teaching children to speak correctly after they have reached the high school is largely one of establishing a point of view in regard to habits of speech and of providing dramatic drill in order that right habits may be established.

Students must be made to understand that the power to speak well has both a business and a social value. They must be helped to analyze common faults in English until they see that a handful of grammatical errors, some slang phrases and gross slovenliness of enunciation and pronunciation constitute the points of attack.

When these fundamentals have been developed chiefly by reports of "overheard conversations" and of business and social experiences, the way is paved for work.

The point of view must be further broadened by insistence upon the fact that "Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth must speak." Another analysis of speech qualities which emphasizes the prime importance of ideas; the necessity for presenting ideas so that they may "get over;" the marvelous power of words to express ideas; and the importance of the medium—the voice—through which spoken English takes form, will provide scope for the most extensive and intensive work in developing power to speak correctly and effectively.

During all the work the best results can be obtained only when there is maintained a core of practice rather than a litany of precepts. Dramatizations of facts to be established, game drills for rules, tag days, speech surveys, conversational conferences, reports of failures, successes, and schemes for personal improvement, are not mere devices. They are essentials in removing the process of learning to speak well from the recesses of the brain where rules of grammar and rhetoric stagnate, to the tip of the tongue where the give and take of everyday talk must be forced into correct and vital expression.

The people who are working most intensively with the problem of helping to train the next generation of Americans to "honor the language of the country as they honor the flag" report progress. What is more, the currents touch from all parts of the country, and there seems to be hope that we may live to walk through the streets

of our cities and towns without having our ears assailed as now, with the atrocities which pass for the English language in America. The day will not come, however, until the point of attack is not the high school, but the kindergarten.

(2) THE PREVENTION AND CORRECTION OF SPEECH DEFECTS.

FREDERICK MARTIN, M. D., *Director of Speech Improvement, Board of Education, New York*

"Today I shall speak to you upon a topic which should be understood by all of us but which is often misunderstood by most of us—that is, the prevention and correction of speech defects. Ignorance of this subject is appalling among those who have the care of children. This is due to the paucity of efficient literature. Parents have been compelled to depend upon misleading advice of friends who would suggest innumerable panaceas, the majority of which but serve to aggravate the condition.

The importance of this subject has been brought to the attention of the public lately in connection with the training of men for the army. It was found necessary to reject 10% of the candidates for commissions as officers because of poor articulation.

The points which we emphasized at the Training Camps, I am sure will be of interest to you.

An officer must possess a forceful, commanding voice in order to create the proper morale. This was brought to my attention, at Harvard, in the effect of the voices of the various commanders upon their men and the spirit in which they responded to orders when drilling. Strong, rotund, well delivered commands produced a fast response, while a poor delivery evoked only labored actions. So it is with all of us in our daily concourse, it will be found that a clear voice, the ability to deliver words so that they can be easily understood, will inspire our auditors with a better feeling toward us—and a better understanding. Business men recognize that voice is an economic asset and many corporations refuse to employ those suffering from a defect of it.

It is necessary that a soldier have a proper development of the vocal chords in order to save his voice when compelled to speak amid the roar and din of the battlefields. This is a point upon which I have been lecturing to school teachers, and one which you would appreciate if you were to come to the Board of Education on

my office days or to one of our speech clinics and there see the number of teachers and pupils who suffer from aphonia because they have never properly developed their vocal chords. I shall later dwell upon this phase of the work.

The third reason for better speech in the soldier treats the matter from a new viewpoint. Men with well developed speech centres are less liable to Shell Shock. The conclusion has been reached that if we develop good strong centres in the brain for speech, we will increase the power and capacity of the other associated cortical areas. Man is differentiated from the lower animals by his ability to speak. Speech is the last centre developed in the evolution of the brain and the first faculty lost when we suffer shock in any form. It acts as a keystone to the arch of the brain. This theory was applied in our army work; and in the development of the soldier, it was deemed necessary to strengthen the speech centres in order to remove the tendency to neurasthenia. We have a Unit at Cape May for the treatment of soldiers who have lost their speech through Shell Shock. It has been found that men with good strong voices and well developed speech centres were less liable to suffer the ill effects of Shell Shock. This principle of the development of the speech centre as the keystone or binding link of the other areas of the brain also applies to the training of the child. If in youth we have a proper development of this centre, it will help in the proper training of the other associated brain areas such as hearing, memory, color and form.

The note of paramount importance which we are trying to impress upon the social mind is that of general speech improvement and the prevention of defects. In drawing a résumé of statistics, it has been proven that most speech defects arise during the school age—that is between the years of five and nine. They occur after the child has entered school. There are a great many psychological reasons for this. I do not attribute the fault to the teacher but to the curriculum which has neglected to allot sufficient time to this most important subject.

We should develop better voices. You can develop good voice production in almost any child unless there is an organic defect or some lesion in the brain. The simplest mode to follow is the daily practice of vocal gymnastics, which will exercise the muscles controlling the vocal chords. If these are brought into play, continually and sufficiently, you will produce the proper voice and a speech which can be heard. The exercises are built upon the six fundamental sounds: A (as in father), A (as in ate), E (as in eat), AW (as in awning), O (as in OH) and OO (as in food). A manual of exercises built upon these sounds may be obtained by application to the Department of Speech Improvement, Board of Education, New York.

In the production of audible speech, it must be remembered that it is necessary to properly deliver the vowels. When we bring out the vowels we make our words carry. This is a point I give to public speakers and teachers. At the close of the day, when the teacher is tired, the tendency is to tighten the muscles of the face, to close the teeth, to raise the pitch and to force out the words. At such a time, if one will think of the vowels (opening the mouth to let them carry) and lower the pitch, the effect upon the class will be noticeable and the expenditure of nerve power be diminished one-third. **THE VOWELS OR OPEN—MOUTH SOUNDS ARE THE VEHICLES OF OUR SPEECH.** For example, take the word "vowel." If I say to you "vow-el" you can distinguish the word at a great distance. But if I mouth the vowels (no matter how great the breath force expended), by the time the word reaches the rear of the audience, it might be interpreted as "owl," "foul" or many other analogous words.

Children in the lower grades who are permitted to continue day by day, the practice of faulty articulation and mumbled speech, gradually develop defects which manifest themselves in the competition of later grades. To this add the complexities arising from speech conflict consequent upon difficult studies and we have our major disorders. *Correct habits of articulation and enunciation are based upon scientific principles of production.* With daily practice and application of vocal gymnastics and phonic drills, the teacher can soon produce a proper vowel resonance, a clear enunciation and distinct pronunciation. Spoken language is the result of a process of imitation. The only way in which the pupil can attain a faultless enunciation is for the teacher to constitute herself a model from which he must pattern his speech. The proper development of voice—and the speech organs—should precede reading because of the mental conflict in the visualization of his thoughts. Stammering very often finds its inception in the schools in the pernicious practice of forcing children to articulate words before the areas controlling voice have been properly developed. The brain centres for the production of speech very often do not keep pace with the centres where we form the mental images of words or of written language. The result is that the child will think faster than he can speak, speech conflict will ensue and stammering be engendered.

Great progress has been made in solving the functional difficulties of the voice. These defects we have divided into five major classifications—each of which I shall briefly describe.

The classification of speech defects are the following: (1) Stammering and Stuttering, (2) Lisping, (3) Lalling and Cognate Defects, (4) Defective Phonation and (5) Foreign Accent.

Stammering and Stuttering

More noticeable in its manifestations than other defects, because of its many acute phases is stammering. Those suffering with this defect are probably the most neglected class of afflicted human beings in the world, having received until lately but little attention from either the pedagogic or medical profession.

Stammering, according to its universally accepted meaning in English, is a halting, defective utterance. The sufferer has difficulty in starting a word or in passing from one letter to another. It is a momentary lack of control of the muscles of articulation in the effort to speak. Often the stammerer will come to an absolute halt, being unable to produce voice. The defect is sometimes accompanied by irregular spasmodic movements of the organs of the body, often terminating in a partial or serious derangement of the articulate speech. One form of stammering is commonly known as stuttering. It is the unnecessary repetition of a letter or a word before passing to the next—as, “d-d-dog,” or “they-t-they-they went out.”

For the lack of time I am forced to epitomize my remarks upon this subject of defects. I would refer those eager for an exposition of the subject to my article in *School Health News*, of February, 1919 (Department of Health, City of New York).

The cure of stammering is at once complex and delicate. The slightest mistake may interfere with an effective treatment. There must be developed an equilibrium of emotions, a precision of thought and a new habit of speaking. The instructor must make a psychological study of every case—treating each as a personal equation. He must induce an attitude of mind, on the part of the sufferer, which will increase determination and confidence. The habit of stammering is, in itself, sufficient to derange the nerve mechanism, producing a lack of confidence and excessive inhibition. The result is timidity and mental retardation. Stammering is abnormal and contrary to the proper functioning of the organs of the body often terminating in a partial or serious derangement of the nervous system which can only be corrected by removing the cause—stammering.

The stammerer is inharmonious in his being. We must vitalize and harmonize his three elements—mind, body and voice. There is an inability to respond to stimuli because of his imperfect coordination. This sluggishness must be eliminated by quick, snappy response in all gymnastics whether mental, physical or vocal. He must acquire control of his speech mechanism. That is a physiological cure just as control of his thought mechanism is psychological.

It is not by the laying of a cornerstone that a building is completed but rather by the careful placing of one stone upon another. So must constant exercise be given to the stammerer until the larynx function normally and the auditory images become fixed. We might summarize such exercises by placing them in six groups: (1) The development of a proper production of consonants and a fast responsive blending of initial consonants with the accompanying vowels; (2) Syllabication; (3) Tongue and Vocal Gymnastics; (4) Silent reading for the study of production and phraseology; (5) Reading aloud before mirrors, to experience visualization as well as new auditory sensation; (6) Conversation while under the control of suggestion.

The fallacy of the following methods must be studiously avoided: (1) Silence treatments; (2) Breath control; (3) Unusual intonation of voice; (4) Use of synonyms for words that are feared; (5) Rhythmic movements of hands or feet when speaking—and in general, anything unnatural which will but serve to make a stammerer feel that he is atypical.

I would like to impress upon all the fact that the advice given is generic and must be modified to serve individuals. Every case must be regarded as a personal problem, for as brains differ, in their thoughts, their reasoning power, their association of ideas, so the defects of speech arising in brains, manifest different reflexes which one must learn to detect *per se*. Many unnatural mental disturbances enter into the personal equation with which we have to deal. Therefore, when correcting a case, while we are removing the causes mentioned above, such as juxtaposition of the organs, over-innervation, rigidity, etc., it is vitally essential that we lead the sufferer into new channels of thought, new associations of ideas and a different subconscious control of stimuli.

Lisping

Lisping is an imperfect production of sibilant sounds. A common form of this defect is the protruding of the tongue (lingual protrusion) when giving the "s" sound, saying "thith for "this" or "thithter" for "sister." This is merely a habit and is corrected by rigid supervision on the part of the instructor. The lisper must be taught to discipline his unruly tongue. A system of tongue gymnastics and a manual of lessons are employed with such cases when referred to our special clinics.

Most cases of lisping find their inception during the period of dentition. This must be corrected when the second teeth come in by insisting upon an imitation of correct production, with the teacher or parent as a model.

Lalling and Cognate Defects

Lalling as the word implies, signifies an acute sluggishness of the lingual muscles when speaking. This defect is rare in the high school but commonly encountered in the elementary grades, especially among mentally defective children. Many of the cases of lalling are given the misnomer, "tongue-tied." However, out of an average *hundred* cases brought to me as "tongue-tied," I find that but one really is. This defect is caused by a lack of co-ordination of the muscles of the tongue and is corrected by tongue gymnastics and the development of a faster response to stimuli.

Associated with lalling we find many defects such as nasality and nasal twang. Nasality is the emission of too much sound through the nose. You will find, as a rule, that this has been caused by hypertrophied tonsils. It may, in exceptional cases, be directly due to a paralysis of the palate but usually is simply the result of improper usage of the palate, which is corrected by stimulation and the exercise of raising and lowering the uvula, as employed in the Tongue Gymnastics. Nasal twang is the emission of all the sound through the mouth. In order to have perfect speech the fundamental sounds should issue from the mouth but these must be reenforced by the resonance of the nasal cavities. The child with adenoid growths, deflected septum or any interference in the nasal passages, will not be able to use these different sounding boards and the result is a nasal twang. In such cases he or she should be referred directly to a specialist.

Defective Phonation

Defective phonation is the improper production of sounds due to slovenly speech and the lack of sufficient training in the proper phonetic values. We hear "dat" for "that," "lidle" for "little," "could-je" for "could you" and "Witch is Fit Avnoo?" instead of "Which is Fifth Avenue?" There is no organic cause for this. It is merely a habit, which may be easily corrected by drawing the child's attention to his imperfect production of these sounds. In most cases it is the result of environment. He does not properly visualize his words nor is the auditory sense properly developed. It is analogous to his poor spelling. The production of better articulation in speech will develop better spelling.

Foreign Accent

This is the largest class with which we have to deal in the public schools of our great city. It is the proper understanding of effectual methods for the elimination of this form of speech, which will be a big factor in the present National Movement for the Americanization of the Foreigner. Continued use of the mother tongue causes a foreign articulation of the organs of speech and a different auditory

conception of the vowel sounds. In developing a better habit of speech in these foreigners, we must always bear in mind sound production and tone variation.

From careful study, I have divided foreign accent into three classes: (1) The giving of improper or false value to our vowels, for example, "Harry" pronounced as though it were spelled "Hairy," "Morris" as "Mawruss," "out as "aont," "peach" as "pitch" and "apple" as "epple;" (2) Placing stress on the wrong syllable, as "cha rac' ter" instead of "char' ac ter," "pi an o'" for "pi an' o" and "or gan' i za tion" for "or gan i za' tion;" (3) The rising inflection at the end of sentences.

These various forms of foreign accent are corrected by developing a proper production of the vowel sounds, a study of the phonic elements and by a rehabilitation of pitch. I have prepared a syllabus on the subject which is now used in our public schools and may be obtained upon application to the Department of Speech Improvement, 157 East 67th Street, New York.

Before I leave you, I would like to show an interesting case of auditory aphasia. This girl was pronounced deaf and has therefore never developed the thought of speech. She was referred to us by the Red Cross and after a month of sense training we have developed her auditory centres. Words now begin to have a meaning in her life. In her case there is no organic defect but a vocabulary will have to be developed so that she can interpret all messages.

The College of the City of New York conducts a Summer Clinic and Course where those interested from any part of the country may receive the necessary training to qualify them to become specialists in the field of correcting speech defects and general speech improvement. The methods taught are those employed in the public schools of New York City and adopted by the U. S. Army in its Base Hospitals for the correction of speech defects in soldiers suffering from Shell Shock or injuries.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF BETTER SPEECH IN CHILDREN

HELEN M. PEPPARD, *Supervisor of Clinics for Speech Defects,
College of City of New York*

Too much cannot be said about the influence of environment upon the speech of our school children. Children are natural born imitators; it is through this faculty of imitation that speech is learned. Roger Ascham, the noted English scholar, said, "All languages are begotten and gotten solely by imitation. For as ye are use to hear,

so ye learn to speak." We must remember that speech is not an inheritance but an acquired faculty developed through imitation. We can, therefore, understand what a tremendous amount of harm can be done by association with and imitation of a foreign born parent speaking with a foreign accent or a teacher who enunciates in a slovenly manner.

In our modern system of education, unfortunately, a child spends the majority of his time developing the visual sense, due no doubt, to the old fashioned idea that quiet means discipline. Speech is a natural and primal method of expression. What are we doing to develop this speech? What are we doing to develop the kinaesthetic sense which is the corner stone of speech? There is an old but erroneous saying, "Children talk too much!" Rather let us evolve a new slogan, "Children *cannot* talk too much!"

Dr. Frederick Martin has shown in his work with "shell shocked" soldiers that where you can develop the speech faculty, you secure an easier co-ordination of the other cranial areas. This same theory should be applied in the education of the different faculties of children from their reception into the kindergarten.

"The child should have the proper production of speech before attempting to read," says Dr. Martin. If we study this deeply we will all agree with him. The speech centre should be well developed in the child before giving him the difficult task of reading. This should be done to prevent Speech Conflict arising over the difficulty of co-ordinating the centres which interpret the content of idea of a sentence and those concerned in the production of voice; also, for the reason, that there is a vast difference in the phonic interpretation of identical groups of letters in the various languages or in the same tongue.

I made the statement that speech is taught through imitation, I will modify that by saying that speech is taught through imitation as far as possible and that imitation plays a big factor in its development. However, we have all found in our experience, children who cannot produce sounds through either direct or indirect imitation. It is here that the study of the speech mechanism plays an important part. It is absolutely necessary in these cases to teach mechanically the correct position of the vocal organs for various sounds. A large percentage of Stammering is due to the lack of knowledge of the exact position of sounds. Dr. Martin, therefore, has arranged a regular system of exercises to be used in all classes of the public schools of New York City. Their aim is to develop better voices and prevent speech defects as well as to eradicate any existing defects. The following is a brief outline of these exercises:

Breathing exercises done responsively;

Corrective exercises done vigorously and responsively;

Tongue gymnastics practiced before mirrors to secure better co-ordination of the lingual muscles and a fast response to stimuli;

Vocal gymnastics aid to secure:

Voice support or proper lung power.

Development of the vocal organs.

Correct sound production and tone placement.

A full, rotund, open-mouth delivery.

These exercises should be practiced standing. The combinations (aha, ahaee, etc.) should be given on one breath as though each group formed a word.

(Note: The *a* used in these exercises is that in the word make.)

ah, a, ee, oh, oo

aha, aee, eeaw, awoh, ohoo

ahaee, aeeaw, eeawoh, awohoo

ahaeeaw, aeeawoh, eeawohoo

ahaeeawoh, aeeawohoo

ahaeeawohoo, aeeawohoo

ooohaweeah.

(3) ENGLISH IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

THOS. H. BRIGGS, *Columbia University*

A. *General purposes* of the junior high school are conceived as:

1. To explore by means of material in itself worth while the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of the pupils, and to reveal to them the possibilities in the major fields of learning.
2. To teach pupils to do better the desirable activities that they will do anyway.
3. To reveal higher types of activities and at the same time to make them both desired and to an extent possible.
4. To integrate society by teaching a common body of knowledge and ideals, and to differentiate education for individuals according to probable needs.

B. *Literature*

1. The worth of a piece of literature to an individual is proved by the extent to which it elicits from him a satisfying emotional response. The success, therefore, of the selection and teaching of any piece of literature may be measured by the extent to which pupils desire more of the same kind. The school must begin on the pupil's aesthetic level, however low that may be, and build up gradually.

2. The junior high school must not neglect current books and magazines. It should be particularly concerned to develop the power of discrimination between the varying degrees of good material and to teach good habits of silent reading.

3. Worthy literature should be taught so as to contribute even more than aesthetic appreciation. It should give to pupils

a. variety and breadth of life by means of vicarious experiences;

b. interpretation of various phenomena of life, both subjective and external;

c. preparation for probable future experiences by ideals and attitudes.

Recommendation of cycles centering on desired ideals—e. g., of heroism, friendship, loyalty, patriotism, etc.

4. The study of literature should be for the most part extensive, with occasional intensive analyses of short classics; better the one dominant point from twenty masterpieces than fifty points from one. The extensive plan of study should

a. build up a body of integrating common knowledge and ideals;

b. teach young people to do better the kind of reading that they are likely to do later;

c. reveal a wide field from which selections may be intelligently made later;

d. result in a background for future more specialized study.

5. If the pupils have not already learned, the junior high school should give them systematic instruction in silent reading, that they may read rapidly with definite purpose evaluating, organizing, and supplementing the material for a worthy end.

6. The school should make possible oral expression, with provisions for definite improvements where needed, in dramatic work and in purposeful reading of units considerably longer than now ordinarily used.

C. *Composition*

1. All composition, both oral and written, should have a motive that seems worthy to the pupils.

2. Composition is best taught by problems rather than by assignments of isolated and unmeaningful fragments of a logical organization. The four formal types of discourse are important only as a means to an end.

3. Subjects should be drawn chiefly from the pupils' experiences and interests outside the English class. The other fields of school work should be drawn on frequently, partly to secure good subject-matter, partly to improve expression there, and partly to emphasize the idea that good English is of general worth.

4. Besides an impelling motive, each composition should be developed to improve some definite form on rhetorical principle.

5. Emphasis should be laid on the larger virtues of sincerity, simplicity and clearness, accuracy, interest, etc.

6. Details of form are best considered *in situ* when needs arise. However, to assure consideration of such matters as are considered necessary for all pupils, forms—spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and the like—should be systematically distributed throughout the course, a few taken at every lesson.

7. The most fundamental matters of form should receive such thorough and repeated drill—*in situ* when possible—as to stamp them in thoroughly.

8. The elements of grammar useful in preventing or correcting errors in English should be taught in such a way as to make their maximum contribution to effective expression.

a. The junior high school is not the place for presenting a systematic and elaborate organization of the facts of language in general.

b. The responsibility for teaching elements of grammar useful only to foreign languages does not rest on the English teacher.

9. Emphasis should be laid on oral as well as on written composition.

10. Pupils should receive systematic instruction in the use of the reference library.

11. Socialized forms of work should be extensively used. This includes occasional co-operative preparation, motivated presentation of material in the class, and mutual criticism both before and after the formal recitation.

SUBJECT: EXTENSION VALUES IN ENGLISH

HOW CAN INSTRUCTION IN OTHER SUBJECTS CONTRIBUTE TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE PUPILS' ENGLISH

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC, *Ph. M., Chicago Normal College*

Abstract of Address.

In order that the work in other subjects may support the teaching of English it is necessary first of all that there shall be an agreement as to what is meant by English. The term is now used to cover a great variety of activities, all of which may, however, be grouped under two heads, namely, practical English and literary English. The former aims mainly to develop the power of correct and effective expression in speech and writing for the purposes of everyday life. As complementary and hardly less important are the aims of training

pupils to gain exact information from books and to do this with reasonable speed and effectiveness. Literary English, on the other hand, is directed toward the enjoyment of leisure. This does not mean that it is unserious but merely that it is different. One does not read poetry or a novel for the same reason that he writes a business letter. The study of stories, poetry, plays, and essays, then, should be regarded as valuable primarily in so far as it awakens in the students permanent interests in good books and establishes right habits of using them.

The first step, then, in bringing about co-operation of all departments in the teaching of English is to differentiate clearly between the practical course in the subject and the literary course. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing English as well as the appropriate mental activities of thinking, imagining, and the like should go on in both of them. Material for study, however, should be chosen with reference to different aims and it should be handled by different methods. Such a plan of organization will meet the criticism often justly expressed that what the teachers of English are doing has little or no connection with what the other teachers are doing and that therefore other teachers cannot justly be called upon for assistance.

As a matter of fact, once practical English is properly defined, it becomes evident to all that it is something with which the teacher of history and the teacher of science are as much concerned as the teacher of English herself. Straight thinking and clear and forceful expression are as necessary in the study of history and of science as in the study of any other object. We think in words and we communicate in words. Any weakness in control of words is vital in any aspect of school work, to say nothing of the life outside.

When the matter is put in this way, the teachers of all subjects will readily admit their interest and their obligation, but they will at once inquire how they are to help; certainly not by attempting systematic instruction in either speaking, writing, or reading. Systematic instruction in those activities is the peculiar task of the trained expert, the teacher of English. But the teachers of other subjects can and should share with the teacher of English in cherishing the definite aims which have been set up for the work in practical English, should know what is being taught in the English class, and should encourage and require their pupils to use in other classes everything which they have learned in the way of methods of expression and of using books. They should hold to the same standards of correctness and to the same careful preparation for expression in class.

This is necessary and it is reasonable. Unless uniform pressure is brought to bear upon the pupils all along the line any attempt at reform on the part of the English teacher will be futile. This is

so well-known as not to need discussion. It is not, however, so clearly recognized that the preparation of a history lesson, for example, should proceed along the lines of preparation for oral composition. There should be the same careful gathering of material with reference to a specific end, the same intelligent organization, and the same care to give full, clear, and forceful expression. When the assignment in history, for example, is in the nature of a problem to be solved and calls for something more than mere memorizing of a text, methods in the use of English become at once of first importance.

It appears, then, that by suitable delimitation of the field, development of an adequate common understanding, and the use of modern methods of instruction, the work in all classes can be made really a training in the use of English. Obviously the emphasis will not fall upon mere nagging with regard to certain errors in grammar, but will have reference rather to such basic matters as clear and logical thinking, satisfactory expression in complete sentences arranged in logical sequence, and in the use of such illustrations as give force and clearness. Such a doctrine should be set forth by the principal of each school, upon whom devolves the responsibility for taking the initiative in the matter of co-operation in English and in arranging for such conferences and other supervisory devices as will enable his teachers to make the work in English effective through intelligent team work.

(1) USING THE NEWSPAPER AND THE MAGAZINE IN THE
ENGLISH CLASS

JAMES FLEMING HOSIC, *Ph. M., Chicago Normal College*

Abstract of Address.

There is little need to advocate at this time the use of newspapers and magazines in high school classes in English. Three or four of the popular weekly and monthly magazines are engaged in campaigns of advertising which are sure to result in a sufficient emphasis upon the use of periodicals in the schools. What is needed is not so much propaganda as a careful analysis of aims and possibilities. The periodical is not in itself a panacea. In the hands of the indiscreet it may be something approaching a nuisance.

The present tendencies as judged by the reports so far published are surely not altogether in the right direction. If we may believe the testimonials published by the circulation managers of the period-

icals themselves, the most common use of magazines in the English class is to provide the subject matter for oral and written composition. This seems to be in no way an improvement upon the situation so common a few years ago in which the English classics were drawn upon almost exclusively for the ideas to be expressed in high school composition. The most that can be said is that the writing found in current magazines is perhaps more nearly like the style which students nowadays should aim to acquire than that found in such classics as the so-called "Essays of Macaulay."

If each student had the privilege of presenting to the class items of news or of general information not familiar to the others, the procedure would be commendable. The common practice, however, seems to be to have all members of the class buy the same issue of the same magazine and discuss it in class. This does, of course, give opportunity for conversation and perhaps for occasional organized debates. It does not, on the other hand provide the opportunity for gathering ideas directly from experience and giving to them original organization and expression. Yet this is precisely the real task of composition. Paraphrasing and compiling are editorial functions and are not commonly needed. Except as an interest in certain phases of life may be aroused by the reading and thus lead on to investigation and ultimately to the preparation of compositions laying some claim to originality, the magazine should not be drawn upon to any great extent for the subject matter of speaking and writing.

There remain, however, two important services which the periodical may perform in school. The first is that of supplying suggestive examples of contemporary English. What the writers in the periodicals do is in part what the pupils in school wish to learn to do. If, then, the pupils will first try their hands at expressing their own experience and will afterward turn, under the guidance of the teacher, to the examination of the methods employed by the writers in periodicals, they may learn much about how to improve their own expression. A suitable sequence is as follows: First, a situation providing the opportunity and motive for communication in speech or in writing; second, the development by the pupil of his own individual specific purpose; third, his formulating this as a project requiring the gathering of material and the organization and expression of it; fourth, presentation to the class, with definite criticism by members of the class and the teaching, looking to improvement; fifth, the writing out of what has been said in the form of a first draft of a written composition; sixth, the reading in some current periodical of examples of the type of composition which the members of the class have been attempting. This should be a class exercise and should lead to definite suggestions, made, as far as possible, by the pupils themselves, as to how their methods may be improved through the employment of the

methods used by the skilled writer under discussion. Finally will come the revision for publication before the class of the first draft which has been for some time laid away. Such a procedure reduces the labor of the teacher to a minimum and gives the pupil the largest possible opportunity for self-help.

The second and perhaps greater function of the periodical in school is to train the students in the use of current literature. No other phenomenon of American life is more striking today than the almost universal habit of reading newspapers and other periodicals. Unfortunately these are not read, for the most part, with a great amount of discrimination. Metropolitan newspapers are often quoted seriously as though the report of the news of the day could be accepted without reservation. Comparison, however, of one paper with another or of the columns of a single paper on different days would reveal instantly how little dependence can be placed upon the unclassified mass of sensations provided from day to day in the press. The weekly and monthly magazines are, of course, much more dependable. Nowhere, however, can the reader surrender the right to the exercise of cool judgment for comparisons of opinions and sources. Pupils should be taught to read periodicals with discrimination.

They should also be taught to read them with economy. It requires both skill and self-control to dispose of the morning paper with thoroughness and suitable dispatch. The temptation to read on and on because of the seductive style employed is very great. One speaker has recently referred to the process as "taking one's daily dope." It is indeed often little better than a drug habit. A sane, conservative practice, then, should be developed—a practice while not discarding the daily paper, does not permit it to become a master or to occupy more than a legitimate portion of one's time.

In the case of the weekly and monthly magazines there are the complementary problems of the selection of the magazine and also the selection of what shall be read in it. To these should be added the third problem of how to read an article so as to get the main points and to remember them. The fact is that at present the almost universal practice seems to be to read the magazine for pastime. Some of them certainly should be read for this purpose, but others should be read for the stimulation of serious thought and for the acquisition of worth while information. This requires analysis and memory. It requires concentration and it requires reasoning and judgment. At present these are but slightly exercised.

The crowning task of the teacher of periodicals in school is to train pupils to read. This means training in what to read and in how to read it. The use of periodicals will probably increase rather than decrease. Their influence is at present beyond all measurement and growing. Let the English teacher, therefore, rise to his opportunity

and train young people in the grammar grades and the high schools to select and use current literature with intelligence and discrimination. The future of the republic depends to a very large extent upon his doing so.

(2) TEACHING PATRIOTISM IN ENGLISH CLASSES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

J. D. MAHONEY, *West Philadelphia High School for Boys*

Abstract of Address.

Before discussing the teaching of "Patriotism" it is really necessary to have some definition of the word itself agreed upon. It would seem to me that, no matter what the final manifestation of patriotic ideals may be in either sentiment or action, it may be asserted that the basis of patriotism lies in a sincere love for those who, with us, make up our nation and live in our country.

This naturally leads to the constant desire to have all of us live well and truly as individuals, and to have us deal collectively as a nation in an honorable and truthful way with our neighbor nations.

In order that any citizen may exercise patriotism to the advantage of his country, it is necessary that he shall have: first, a genuine feeling of regard and charity for his fellow men; second, a sufficient knowledge of facts to form a basis for judging what ideas, propositions and courses of action he should support; and third, a sufficient training in the ability to think logically in order that he may be able to judge intelligently upon such a basis of known facts.

In aiming at having pupils in the high school acquire these three qualities so necessary for enlightened patriotism, the English class undoubtedly may play an important part.

First. By the reading of good literature in which is embodied the spirit of love of country and in which is inculcated the principles of broad human charity and good will to his fellows, the pupil will develop the basic and impelling sentiment. Two things should be avoided in the choice and conduct of such reading. We should shun all literature which is narrow and intolerant in character and which tends to breed allegiance to one's own country by means of building up hostility towards and suspicion of neighboring peoples. The attitude of the German people in our recent great war should teach the danger of such schooling if it teaches anything. Reading also should not be forced and made artificial by constant explanation and analysis. It should be "reading" not "study." Literature cannot be studied by high school pupils—at least not without ruining literature.

Second. The reading of all literature and the discussion of all subjects in the English class room, by choice of material and conduct of class, should aim at having the student constantly desire and seek to know the *truth* about all things. The chief means of developing this seeking for truth, however, is in the field of composition and rhetoric. The ability to understand that a sentence is a logical statement which must hold water is the true beginning of an education which will withstand illogical and falsely emotional propaganda. The constant drill in vocabulary, entailing the knowledge of what a word means and the ability to define its meaning in a way that really defines will lay a basis of truth-seeking that will last through life.

Third. The training in English composition should seek to have the student draw sensible conclusions from known facts. It is in advanced composition involving the essay in written work and the debate in oral English, that this may be worked out most advantageously. The ability to assemble reliable facts, to value them proportionately, and to draw from them logical conclusions, is what essay writing and debate in high school English should aim at producing—if they have any justifiable aim at all. It would seem to me that if the English class made these three aims a part of its work, it might do a service second to none in teaching patriotism. It is evident, however, that the whole effect may easily be injured, even frustrated, by any constant stating of these aims to the pupils themselves. Sentiment that does not grow naturally through that upon which it feeds is likely to be artificial, and constant preaching of patriotic "aims" to children may produce *cant* instead of *patriotism*. The same is true concerning composition work. Constant prating about a logical goal will not accomplish so much as exercise in locomotion towards it. Besides all this, it is doubtful whether the revelation of the wheels of method to the juvenile or adolescent pupil ever did much good; and it is equally doubtful whether results are accomplished by reference to ultimate aims rather than by concentration upon immediate objects.

In conclusion, I feel strongly that it is of the utmost importance that the teacher himself must qualify for this kind of patriotism before there is any chance of the pupil's developing the spirit of humanity and good will which must be the basis of the whole idea. It is even possible that a teacher who honestly and devotedly feels this spirit but who has little method or ability may do much more in teaching real patriotism than he who follows every principle with intelligence and skill but who does not "love his country and his fellows in his heart."

GENERAL SCIENCE



AIMS AND PURPOSES OF GENERAL SCIENCE

BERTHA MAY CLARK, *William Penn High School, Philadelphia*

The emphasis of General Science should be put upon ways by which desirable changes in nature can be brought about, ways by which environment can be made to yield more material and hence more freedom for all. The average farmer plows, harrows, plants and cultivates about one-third of his corn acreage without return (Bailey—*Cyclopedia of Agriculture*). Time, strength, crops wasted. Why not emphasize the need of three-thirds efficiency? Fourteen ears of corn are needed to seed one acre. If but one ear of seed corn be poorly selected, one-fourteenth of the crop is wasted. How important then to emphasize seed selection. If improvement of crops by selection be presented why not improvement of the race by selection? "It is within the power of men to cause all parasitic diseases to disappear from the earth," Pasteur. Why not begin on the physical improvement of the race? Again the emphasis should be put upon ways in which undesirable changes can be prevented; such as encroachment upon land of ocean as along the Jersey coast. Fire prevention, loss by fire of forest trees, homes, food supplies, etc. The chief terror of the sea in the past has been collision in fog; for decades and for centuries we have needlessly allowed ships to go down year by year simply because we have not realized the possibilities of prevention through organized research. Out of the anti-submarine efforts of scientists has grown a device by which it is possible to eliminate the dangers of fogs. The preventing of a single disaster like the sinking of the *Titanic* or of the *Empress of Ireland* more than pays, without reference to the value of human lives, for all the time and money spent by England, France and United States combined in developing detecting devices." Millikan—*Science*, Sept. 26, 1919. No attempt should be made in General Science, or in any first or second year High School Science to train pupils for technical work; far greater good will have been achieved if the pupils get a conception of the worth of human life and the value of scientific research, and the vital need of public support of research laboratories.

But an understanding of soil fertility and rotation of crops, for example, is not worth while unless bound up with it, is the conscious and subconscious purpose of increased production, for the sake of fellow workers. To know, for another example, how to prepare tasty

nourishing food, to select warm clothing, to provide comfortable shelter, to maintain healthy bodies should be but a secondary result of General Science teaching, the main result should be a glimmering, however faint and fleeting, that these things are milestones in man's conquest of environment, in man's emancipation from material fetters, and hence milestones in man's willingness and eagerness to recognize and to work for liberty, equality and fraternity for all.

The first task to which General Science sets itself is to acquaint a pupil with his environment, immediate or remote, so that he recognizes its wide and varied influence upon himself (each is affected by every move made by every one else. If this were not true, our boys would not be lying dead "on Flanders field"), and his possible constructive purposeful reaction upon it; to make part and parcel of him the knowledge that human needs and desires in an ever increasing world can be satisfied only by scientific use of materials, and by filching new secrets from Nature; to keep continually before him the fact that the folkways and the customs of peoples are generally elevated by the lessening of the competition of life, that is by increased power over environment and closer cooperation with environmental factors; to make part of his subconsciousness the idea that real democracy can be attained and retained only when all produce as much as possible for all, when all consume as little as is necessary from the common store of the world granary and when all are guided in personal and public affairs by thoughts of race development, and not personal gratifications. Contrast such actions and ideals with those of strikers.

If such a task be accomplished by General Science, the result will be unselfish action by its pupils, the world's prospective citizens.

Unfortunately unselfish action alone does not guarantee race betterment. The mother, who through supposed unselfish action, pampers her child, does not improve the race, nor do social reformers, who are ignorant of scientific principles always further race progress. Untrammeled thinking, as well as unselfish action is essential. The second task of General Science is to teach by experiments in the laboratory how to prove all things in order to know what is good and what to hold fast to. Anything no matter how simple, that can be called an experiment offers opportunity for keen observation, untrammled deductions, constructive conclusions, and develops the scientific spirit of "prove all things." (fireless cooker, candles, combustion, etc.) General Science because of the variety of matter presented offers experiments on widely different subjects and of widely different procedure and teaches a pupil how to test what is true in many different phases of living. By its avowed allegiance to the simple, the commonplace, the practical, General Science teaches the scientific spirit in a manner understandable to immature minds and

at the same time sacrifices nothing to its fundamental tenet of study, of environment, of relationship, of interrelationships. When General Science was first taught it centered around the home, the individual. The food eaten, the clothes worn, the water drunk, were the important facts, the important thoughts. Unsigned slips turned in at the end of the course in answer to questions as to the value of General Science contained such statements as

“I am familiar with things in my home; I am more alert at home.”

“I am interested in commonplace happenings. I read the Pure Food labels on packages and cannot be cheated easily.”

Now that the interest of General Science has slipped from man as an individual in home, or in school, to man as a maker of democracy, the answers are very different to the question, “What has General Science done for you?”

“It has taught me that things don’t just happen. We can control them.”

“It has taught me that I don’t do anything without it is passed on.”

“It has taught me that I can change environment and make it better.”

“It has taught me that I can make the race healthier if I keep healthy.”

General Science has one fundamental aim—to further democracy; it achieves the aim by emphasizing the common heritage and the common scientific obligation of all; by teaching that man is the scientific heir of all the ages, of all those who have gone before him, and that he is an ancestor of all future ages, of all who come after him. The progress of democracy depends upon how we use our scientific inheritance and how we fulfill our scientific obligations.

AIMS AND PURPOSES OF GENERAL SCIENCE

JOHN H. EISENHAUER, *Junior High School, McKeesport*

The primary aim of a course in general science should be to acquaint the pupil with some of the most important facts and principles underlying his welfare as an individual and as a member of society. The aim is not to make great scientists or to train specialists but to make intelligent citizens of those who otherwise might be ignorant and superstitious concerning everyday phenomena.

The aim should be therefore to go from life into the laboratory and then back again into life; that is, take the everyday phenomena into the laboratory where they may be studied and underlying principles found and stated and then, to gain power and skill, apply these principles to other common phenomena. This work should be made very definite and care should be taken to see that it is not uninteresting.

Secondary aims should be:

1. To enable the student to choose intelligently later science courses and to give the necessary foundation for those courses. Not knowing the nature of certain courses pupils make certain elections because others do and not because they are really interested in them.
2. To give the pupil a vocational survey of sciences to guide and inspire his life work. Many problems of the home and community will be those of the plumber, machinist, electrician, etc., and thus the pupil may find the line of his choice and may be urged onward in its pursuit by his love for the study of science and his knowledge of its laws.
3. To create a love for the study of science. General science should be presented in such a way that the student will be interested, and interested to such an extent that he will want to read and study more than is required in school and will continue his reading of scientific material after he leaves school.

PLACE OF GENERAL SCIENCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM

BEN GRAHAM, *Superintendent of Schools, New Castle*

In considering the place of Science in the curriculum, and particularly General Science, it is necessary to take into consideration the place of all the other Sciences and the relation of General Science to the Sciences which usually follow it in the high school course. In order to determine first where General Science is placed in the course, it might be well to take a brief survey of some of the most recent programs of courses that have been prepared.

Considering Berkley, Grand Rapids, Jackson, and others, where revisions of programs have taken place because of the introduction of the junior high school and the intermediate school, we find the following:

In Berkley, General Science, under the name of Elementary Household Science, is given the ninth year two periods per week.

In Grand Rapids, Physical Geography is given the ninth year five periods per week, and is required. Elementary Science is elective in the same year two periods per week.

In Jackson, General Science is offered in the seventh year for three periods per week; in the eighth year Elementary Agriculture is given three periods per week; and in the ninth year Agricultural Botany.

In Michigan State Department, their suggestive program in the ninth year offers as an elective Botany, Zoology and Physiography. Doctor Davis of Michigan in his suggested course for junior high schools gives in the ninth year Agriculture five periods per week as an elective. In Detroit, Physiography is offered in the ninth year five periods per week, and Applied Physics in the eighth-A and ninth-A in the Boys' industrial course.

In Trenton in the seventh year, General Science is given for four hours per week, and in the ninth year, to academic students only, five periods per week.

In Chelsea in the general course in the eighth year, Physics and Hygiene one-half year, and Nature Study one-half year. In commercial and industrial courses in the eighth year Physiography and Hygiene one-half year, and in the ninth year Elementary Science.

In the Butte survey, in the eighth year General Science is offered three periods per week, and in the ninth year Physical Geography five periods per week, and in their vocational courses, in the ninth year girls are offered Elementary Chemistry five periods per week, and boys Elementary Physics five periods per week.

In the French Lycee, in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years, Natural Science is offered from one to two periods per half year.

In the report of the Committee on junior high schools, presented at the High School Masters' Club of Massachusetts, General Science is recommended for the eighth and ninth years of the course, four periods per week.

In Pittsburgh, Elementary Science is taught two periods per week in the seventh year, and five periods per week in the ninth year.

In Erie, where a junior high school program has recently been prepared, Elementary Science is given two periods per week in the seventh year; three periods per week in the eighth year; and is elective five periods per week in the ninth year.

This sums up the place of General Science in various school programs which have been recently prepared.

CONTENT OF GENERAL SCIENCE COURSES

W. W. D. SONES, *Schenley High School, Pittsburgh*

In general the content of present general science courses are subject to the following criticisms:

1. *The content is based upon faulty aims.* At present subject matter is considered as an end in itself. The values hoped to be achieved are the tangible and utilitarian instead of the spiritual such as appreciation, proper mental habits, guides to conduct, which alone are to be justified.
2. *The content is based upon faulty method.* Memorizing of facts is held above the solution of problems. The point of view must be—what *problem* and not what *fact* is vital to the child's life.
3. *Present content disregards the principle in emphasizing information as an end.* Isolated bits of information are transient and soon lost. Basic principles are vital and endure. This fact suggests the need for a statement of minimum essentials in science study that will insure every child to receive those basic scientific principles that should be the common possession of all.

It would seem that the selection of subject matter that is pedagogically sound suggests the following questions:

- I. What criterion may be used in the selection of content?
The answer is the *child himself*; his needs and interests. Specifically, subject matter must be squared against
 1. The child's abilities—physical and mental.
 2. Whether or not the material develop out of the child's present experience and environment.
 3. Does it meet with the personal or social need of the child?

All may be summed up in the statement that any piece of subject matter is of value in a direct ratio with the number of points it has in common with the life of the child.

- II. What kinds of subject matter are available?
 1. The natural environment of the child.
 2. The child himself and his relation to his natural environment.
 3. Science in his social and community relationships.

In these fields the following type problems are suggested:

1. *Natural environment*: identification of plant and animal forms, soil and study, seasonal calendars, earth forms, stars, etc. In brief every aspect of nature that is met in the child's local environment.
2. *The Child and his relation to nature*: Phenomena of heat, light, sound, electricity. Home science problems, man's occupations, plant and animal inter-relationship.
3. *The child's personal and community relationships*: water systems, community sanitation, health control, fire prevention, conservation.

III. *How assign subject matter to the curriculum?* The subject matter will not change from Grades 1—10. However, the point of view will be adjusted to the needs and interest of the developing child. These points of view are illustrated in the following points or themes:

Grades 1—3: The natural environment.

Grades 4—6: The work of the world.

Grades 9—10: Community and social sciences.

CONTENT OF THE COURSE IN GENERAL SCIENCE

LUCY L. W. WILSON, *Principal, South Philadelphia High School*

Aims must determine the content of courses in general science. When we decided this morning that our object was to do our bit towards developing intelligent citizens with initiative, power to suspend judgment, a sense of responsibility, and the ability to cooperate with others in making a better world for every one, then we outlined the courses of study and the method of teaching it.

Yet Dr. Clark tells us that her content varies constantly, and we know that a course in general science for city schools ought to differ from that for rural schools. Why this paradox?

When general science came into existence a dozen years ago, teachers of science criticized each new text book as it appeared from the standpoint of content. They felt that no one book offered the necessary all-around course. In some too much emphasis was placed upon physics, in others on biology. Now that smoke of battle has cleared away, we can see clearly that this is as it should be. Only in rural communities can plants and animals equal in importance physics and hygiene in the immediate life of the child.

To accomplish the aims to which we have subscribed, the subject matter must be chosen from the child's environment, organized round his needs and interests and reach out and function from them into the community and world. The methods used must be various and varied. But it is imperatively necessary that the children should see problems, carry out projects and gather information. These things take precedence over the question of demonstration, laboratory work and text books.

Quite naturally the content of a science course centers in the home, the school, the community. Such topics as heating, ventilating, lighting the home or school; electricity in home or school; house plants and musical instruments; home and school gardens, birds, poultry raising and bee keeping; the trolley, locomotive, automobile, steamships, submarines and aircraft; community water, milk and food supply; contagious diseases; conservation of forests and birds, and even moving pictures are some of the topics from which we may select our course.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF COMMITTEE ON SCIENCE

Aims and purposes of General Science adopted from report on "Reorganization of Science in Secondary Education," embody the consensus of opinion of this conference and are quoted as follows:

A. To acquaint a pupil with his environment to the extent that he recognizes its scientific reaction upon himself and his possible constructive reaction upon him. To make each pupil an immediate factor toward

1. Improvement of the health of the nation and its individual members. It is important that all who are sick be cured, but it is more important that all people be so tough that they may not become ill. Dissemination of the basic principles of personal hygiene and public sanitation should be one of the first tasks of General Science. Also propaganda against loss of life, by avoidable accidents.

2. Improvement in standards of home membership. General Science touches the efficiency of the home and life within the home at every angle and should render definite service toward the proper organization, use, and support of home life. These services apply not only to those who have the care of the home and the children within it, but to any member of the family who may be called upon to make repairs to the heating and ventilating system, to adjust electrical appliances, or to do any of the many things which are concerned in making an effective and useful home. There are many

conveniences which science has devised to make the modern home comfortable and attractive, and science knowledge is required for their proper use. These activities should be definitely associated with better ideals regarding modern home life.

3. **Elevation of the Standards of Citizenship.** Individual members of society need to have intelligence, responsibility and connection of obligations regarding the things with which the members come in contact. Modern society should use the truth and appliances of science constantly. Science is indispensable to those who are to be of most service as citizens. The variety of scientific truth and appliances used by society necessitates a wide range of subjects to be covered in General Science.

4. Elevation of Ethical Character of Pupil and Community.

Ethical Character. It is believed that science studies assist in developing of ethical character by establishing a more adequate conception of truth, and in it the laws of the cause and effort. Nature exacts her penalties upon those who disobey her laws and gives legitimate returns to those who obey her and use them. It cannot be claimed that science study will cure all tendency to divergent ethics, but along with other studies which exalt the truth and establish laws, science should make an important contribution by developing a method of work which may be used in studying the one ethical relation of subjects other than science. Ultimately ethics should be based upon scientific conceptions and producers.

B. General Science should develop specific interests, habits and abilities.

A large amount of experiences of this sort has been lost in the home training of pupils, experiences which they formerly obtained through the duties, responsibilities and activities of a more self-contained and autonomous home life. This deficiency the school is called upon to meet in a greater and greater degree. Science work properly conducted should give each pupil a varied contact with actual materials. This sort of experiencing is markedly different from the sort which he gets through books, diagrams, comparisons, and other symbolic materials which make up the content of most subjects of study. Science study then possesses a peculiar value by reason of the experimental work it involves in providing personal experience. To provide the desired actual quality, the materials must have a real significance in the lives of the pupils.

C. General Science should give informational value. Science study should give the pupil control of a large body of facts and principles of significance in the home, school and community, and should build up an intelligent understanding of the conditions, institutions, demands and opportunities of modern life. This knowledge should be

of direct assistance in enabling the pupil more intelligently to select future vocations or courses of study. The value is not only in the facts and principles but also in the measure which they represent points of view, deepened and intensified powers of insight, methods of procedure, points of departure for new attempts to reduce a wider range of facts to order.

Science Curricula

The science curricula to be recommended will vary with the type and environment of the schools. Each year's work should be so outlined that it will give the best training without reference to whether the pupils take courses in science. Many schools will need to make adjustments of an adopted sequence, so that it may best serve the school's particular constituency. The committee has outlined sequences for the following types of high school:

- A. The four-year high school of the large composite type with adequate teaching staff and equipment, usually enrolling over 500 pupils.
- B. The four-year high school of medium size, usually enrolling from 200 to 500 pupils.
- C. The small high school of 200 or fewer pupils.
- D. The junior-senior high school combination.

A. The large composite four-year high school

The conditions usually prevailing in these schools make possible a wide differentiation of science courses since they are likely to be enough pupils of special interest to constitute adequate classes in different lines of science work. In such a four-year high school the following plan is recommended:

1st year—General Science.

2nd year—Biological Science—general biology, botany or zoology.

3rd and 4th year—Differentiated curricula to meet special needs and interests as follows:

- a. Physical Science—Chemistry and Physics.
- b. Domestic Science, with additional elective courses in Household Chemistry and Physics of the Home.
- c. Agriculture—two year course—Farm crops, Animal Husbandry, Farm Management and Economics.
- d. Elective courses in General Geography, Botany, Zoology, Physics, Chemistry.

B. Four-year High School of Medium Size

1st year—General Science.

2nd year—Biological Science—general biology, botany or zoology.

3rd year—Chemistry, with emphasis on the home, farm and industries.

4th year—Physics, or elective courses, 3rd and 4th year in Domestic Science, Agriculture, or General Geography.

C. Small High School

1st year—General Science.

2nd year—Biological Science—general biology, botany, or zoology.

3rd year—Chemistry, Agriculture, or Domestic Science.

4th year—Agriculture, Domestic Science, or Physics.

D. Junior-Senior High School

7th or 8th year: or both years with three periods per week—General Science.

9th year—Biological Science—General biology, botany or zoology.

10th, 11th and 12th years—Differentiated curricula with sufficient advanced courses to meet special needs and interests, as:

- a. Physical Science—Chemistry and Physics.
- b. Domestic Science—Two or three year course, with additional elective courses in Household Chemistry and Physics of the Home.
- c. Agriculture—two or three year course—Farm crops, Animal husbandry, Farm Management and Economics, with additional electives from d.
- d. Electives in General Geography, Botany, Zoology, Physics, Chemistry.



MATHEMATICS



(1.) GENERAL PRINCIPLES GOVERNING THE ARRANGEMENT OF A COURSE OF STUDY IN HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS

DAVID EUGENE SMITH, *Columbia University, N. Y.*

1. *Principle of General Information.* That it is the right and the privilege of every student to know the general significance of the great branches of human knowledge, among which is mathematics. Current literature, such hand-books as the encyclopedias and the common technical manuals, and the general converse of one's fellows require that every citizen of a fair degree of education should come in contact with the elements of mathematics. For this reason an introductory course in mathematics should be required of every student. If the student fails in such work, it would be legitimate thereafter to allow the substitution of a course of equal difficulty in some other line.

2. *Principle of Interest.* That the student has a right to know the purpose of each course, to feel that it is leading to something worth his while, and to have before him a motive that appeals to him as urging to intellectual activity.

3. *Principle of Arrangement.* That the work shall be so arranged that each year, and possibly each half year, shall mark a definite stage in the student's progress. In other words, if the student drops out of school at any time he should feel that he has accomplished something definitely worth while up to that point, and not that he has been working on something that might possibly be worth while if he had stayed longer.

4. *Principle of Time.* Our courses are now so crowded that the element of time is a serious one. For this reason it is doubtful if the large high schools with a rich offering of courses will agree to allowing required mathematics to extend beyond the ninth school year. If this shall prove to be the case, we have to consider two plans for the division of time in the general high school course, omitting for the present the question of vocational mathematics of various types.

If the three-and-three plan is adopted, say a junior and a senior high school, then the work should be such that at the end of the ninth school year a pupil may know the general significance of intuitive geometry (form, size, and position of objects, with useful

constructions), of useful algebra (the formula, the graph, the negative number, and the equation), of trigonometry (simply for the purpose of knowing how indirect measurements are made by the aid of two or three functions), and of demonstrative geometry (for the purpose of understanding what it means to demonstrate a mathematical truth). All this work should be informational and should be shown to be definitely useful to the general citizen.

Where the four-year high school is to be continued, as will be the case in most places for the present, the work of the ninth school year should be an epitome of that of the junior high school as outlined above. It should be informational, for the purpose of showing the general nature of mathematics, opening the door in such a way as to enable the school and the student to decide as to the future work of each individual.

Such a plan will make for much better work in the later classes, where mathematics will be elected by those who give promise of success; and it will give to the student a much better idea of the general nature of the science.

5. *Principle of Opportunity.* That the opportunity of doing much better and more extensive and intensive work in mathematics should be given to those who, at the end of the ninth school year, show promise of benefiting by further study. At present this will probably mean the pursuing of mathematics along the conventional lines. In the future it will undoubtedly mean the offering of more advanced and of better considered work in modern types of mathematical study. There is no reason, under such a plan, why the composite courses now offered in the freshman classes for many colleges, or the special courses offered in other colleges, should not be made elective in our larger high schools.

6. *Principle of teaching.* It is not to be expected that a newer type of course can be at once introduced in every high school. Teachers have to be prepared for any change that is contemplated in any line of work. Such a course, however, while arranged on the plan of seeking for the useful in mathematics, does not in any way discourage the recognition of the disciplinary value of the subject. No one of recognized scientific standing seems to have expressed any doubt of such value, and the subject should be so taught as to bring out all such values of the science.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE COURSE IN MATHEMATICS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

I. B. BUSH, *Superintendent of Schools, Eric*

The tendency of the age is to test all things. The fact of the existence of a thing for ages is no reason that it shall continue to exist. Ancestor worship is on the wane not only in this country but throughout the world. We are continually discovering newer and better ways of doing everything. Progress is being made daily in the methods of teaching and the selection of subject matter. Courses of study must be in a state of flux. Changes in courses of study began in the schools with the introduction of new subjects, such as manual arts, commercial subjects, fine arts, etc. The spirit of change has gathered such momentum that it will not end until changes have been made in the subject matter of traditional subjects. Over against the obstinacy and the conservatism of teachers of traditional subjects is set the movement of those who are determined to fit subjects to pupils rather than to try to fit pupils to subjects. The interest of to-day is in supervised study; better methods of teaching pupils to think; in economy of human knowledge and enthusiasm; in making courses more productive for mental life and growth.

Some teachers of mathematics still continue to think that it is a virtue to fail twenty-five per cent. of their classes. Such teachers have no insight into social relations. They have failed to realize that the time has passed when it was the chief duty of the teacher to eliminate what he termed as "the unfit." The time has passed for teaching subject matter to pupils and the time has arrived for teaching pupils subject matter.

In the subject of mathematics there must be greater homogeneity of material, a closer and more persistent correlation of matter drawn from the several branches of mathematics. Pupils are most interested in subjects in which practical values are most clearly exhibited. Children's minds refuse to act as storage batteries for knowledge. The cycle of knowledge is not complete until the knowledge has been used.

Four courses should be provided in mathematics; informational courses for those who have but little aptitude for mathematics in order that they may know something of the algebraic processes, geometrical theorems and the trigonometric functions.

An industrial and vocational course that provides subject matter that will function in the particular vocation which the pupil has selected.

The correlated course which correlates algebra, geometry and trigonometry.

A course that will fit boys and girls for college.

The principles that should govern the selection of subject matter may be stated as follows:

1—Selection of subject matter that will function in the lives of the pupils.

2—Motivation of subject matter.

3—Opportunities should be provided for the pupils to use the subject matter. They should be given an opportunity to learn by experience.

4—A better recognition of vocational needs of pupils.

5—That it is not the purpose of mathematics to eliminate pupils from school.

(2.) A NEW TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL MATHEMATICS

JANE MATTHEWS, *Pittsburgh*

When I obeyed the command of my superior officer to attend this conference, I came with an open mind—ready to be instructed not to instruct, as to the new type of mathematics which may well replace the old. The suggestions that I offer, therefore, are not original but have been gleaned from conferences, reading, and experience, and as such I pass them on to you.

For some years past we teachers of mathematics have had to fight an insidious propaganda against our subject by our friends, the psychologists. They would have the world think from their conclusions, founded on experiments not in the hands of mathematicians, that the cultural claims for our subject were exaggerated and that mathematics no longer had high rank in the curriculum, and therefore, they demanded that less or no time be given mathematics in the curriculum. Then came the Great War, and the carpenter criticism of our enemies have been drowned by its stern call for mathematics, and still more mathematics, to prepare our youth for efficient service. The lesson of the War is, therefore, not less, but more mathematics in our high school courses, for the valuable content of mathematics in its wide-spread usefulness is second only to that of the mother tongue.

Since our high school enrollments have changed from the few with academic aspirations to the many with varied ambitions, and equally as varied preparation, the time-honored arrangement and presentation of our mathematics is no longer satisfactory. We must adapt our mathematics to the needs of the pupils; not to make it easier, but to make it more useful.

The National Committee on Mathematical Requirements, which was organized in the summer of 1916 for the purpose of giving national expression to the movement for reform in the teaching of mathematics, have planned their work on a large scale for the purpose of organizing a nation-wide discussion of the problems of re-organizing the courses in mathematics in secondary schools and colleges. This committee wishes to establish contact with existing organizations of teachers for the purpose of study of the problem of reform, and they invite cooperation and assistance. It seems to me that the high school teachers of Pennsylvania should be among the first to respond to this call, for only through study, discussion, and coordination can a new type of mathematics be evolved that will be well organized and educative. I would suggest, therefore, that members of this conference put themselves on record as endorsing the work of this committee and promising all assistance that may be asked.

What are some of the reforms that are advocated in the teaching of high school mathematics?

First—Great complaint is made in regard to ninth year mathematics. Algebra is the subject usually studied, and the work as outlined in most texts, which most ninth year teachers either follow blindly or are forced to follow, requires at least 80 per cent. of the time to be spent in formal manipulation, and only about 20 per cent. of the time in problem work—and to what end? Has the pupil acquired greater power by going through these complex manipulations as in the reduction of complex fractions? What has been the experience of other teachers? Mine has been that after solving even complex, literal equations and evaluating results, he will balk on the simplest formula. I have had to work hard to make him travel in the narrow path of rectitude when solving such a simple formula

$$S = V_1 + AV_0 \text{ for } V_0.$$

He passes from my class to the physics class and again the instructor tells me he works hard to get my pupil to change a reading centigrade to Fahrenheit by formula. What is wrong? My pupil has not learned how to make a formula; how to translate it into oral and written English, and how to apply it to problems.

Instead then of having the pupil spend his time in the more involved formal processes in the ninth year, which he may never use in his later work, why not make him able to handle formulas and to

analyze verbal problems. It is a good sign that at the present time texts in general mathematics are being published that emphasize problem solving, leaving out much formal work. If these are used in our high schools, there must be a radical change in our course.

I do not advocate the neglect of drill in operations. Short processes and special rules are just as important in algebra as the tables are in arithmetic. We should develop speed and accuracy in the fundamental operations, and here is where the practice tests, such as those of Rugg and Clark, have been so useful. Standard tests and scales have brought into the teaching of algebra accuracy and definiteness of work, and they have brought home to the teacher the weak points in the presentation of work. It has been my experience that pupils enjoy these tests. There have been more interest and concentrated work in those three minute or five minute drills than in anything I can devise.

Now as to subject matter. A good, stiff course of the old-fashioned mathematics for a pupil preparing for college or technical school is, perhaps, the only course under present college requirements. But what shall be done for the student not going to college and likely to drop out of school at 16 years to go to work?

Take the boy in the industrial course, or the Smith-Hughes course —what mathematics is best for him? A well organized course in practical mathematics lasting about one-fourth of his time. He should have drill in making and interpreting formulas so that he may be able to interpret formulas in hand-books which he may have to use in future work. He should have simple, straight-forward courses in algebra and geometry, bringing into the latter problems in mensuration. He should be taught the simpler trigonometric functions and their application, learning to use the tables of these functions. Finally, he should learn the use of the slide rule and of surveying instruments. Such a course worked out in detail and correlated with the shop would give to the boy who must go out to work enough to start to make of himself an intelligent workman, but unless this course be carefully planned through conferences of mathematics and shop instructors, the work will be futile, unrelated, and a time-waster. Excellent courses of this kind have been developed in the Manual Training School of Springfield, Mass., and in the Stuyvesant High School, New York.

What mathematics for the girl who elects the Domestic Science or Manual Arts course in our larger high schools? I believe simple, straight-forward courses in algebra and geometry should be given her, but I also believe a short course in family accounts, home planning, and design should be given some where in the course in mathematics. One term's work could be made a project centering about the financial standing and expenditure of a family in which the

students are really or academically interested. With that could be given a necessary review of arithmetical operations—simple fractions and decimals—correlation could be made with the kitchen and sewing departments concerning estimates for expenditure for meals and clothing. It has been my experience that girls become most interested in such a family and will work long and hard to estimate when the last dollar is to be paid on a home which the family has bought by monthly installments.

We are all familiar with the criticism of the high school graduate when he first enters the business world. He seems to be absolutely without tools for work, and the employer wrathfully blames his high school training. We in the high school blame it on the grades, but would it not be better to face the condition and improve it?

Algebra and geometry are the required mathematics in most high schools. Would it not be better to add to that requirement a good, stiff review of the arithmetic needed in common life? Many of our best educators are advocating this. A very illuminating report was presented at the spring meeting of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in New England, May 3, 1919. A well organized outline for mathematics for the non-college students is published in the June number of the Mathematics Teacher, 1919.

And now to summarize the changes needed in high school mathematics.

1st—Revise the ninth year mathematics, by dropping out unnecessary formal manipulations; by increasing the number of statement problems.

2nd—Adapt the course to the needs of the student.

For the industrial student—

By use of practical problems and familiarity with the tools of his later work—the formula and the slide rule.

For the domestic science or manual arts student—

By offering problems in household economy, house-furnishing, dietetics, dressmaking, and millinery.

For all non-college students—

A thorough review of arithmetic.

(3.) REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MATHEMATICS IN HIGH SCHOOL COURSE

WILLIAM L. SMITH, *Principal, Allegheny High School, Pittsburgh*

Since all courses in public high schools are primarily for the purpose of training boys and girls in citizenship for service to the community and, since effective service demands those qualities of manhood and womanhood which come only from exercise in right thinking, right feeling, and right doing, it follows that courses of study must be formulated with these ends in view and must present material essential to such training.

The function of the citizen in a democratic society is so complex and so fraught with responsibility that it demands not only a wide knowledge of the principles of government on which democratic institutions are founded, but also a close intimacy with these principles, as they obtain in organized society. This intimacy can come, not merely from training for citizenship, but from daily exercise in doing those things which the welfare of the community demands.

The meeting of such responsibilities requires manly qualities of mind and heart. These qualities result from the solution of problems involving conditions incident to society and they become fixed by frequent exercise in such solutions.

That Mathematics offers unusual opportunities for the development of the qualities requisite to effective service, needs no argument. The questions are: what subjects are best adapted to the ends sought and when and how should they be required or offered?

It is generally accepted that all students in high school should, early in their course, master the elementary principles of Algebra and Plane Geometry. This does not mean that the courses in these subjects as at present organized, should be required in the first and second years of the high school, but it does mean that these subjects, with material properly organized and sanely presented, aside from the information they furnish, afford unusual opportunities for training, are therefore essential and should be required at some time during the high school course. —

Courses in advanced Algebra, Solid Geometry and Trigonometry must be offered for those students needing further training in these subjects for vocational, professional or cultural purposes, but these courses should not be required.

For vocational purposes, a thorough course in Business Arithmetic should be required in the early years of the Business Course. This work should not be a review of general arithmetic but a specialized course, laying stress upon methods and manipulations employed in actual business practice.

The important thing in Mathematics course, as in all other subjects, is so to adapt the content to the ends sought, that the non-essential may be eliminated and the essential may receive the emphasis which will render the end sought not only possible but readily accessible. Failure to realize the purpose set, in dealing with young people, not only robs them of the joy of achievement, but also may work disaster in their life experience.

(4.) TRAINING TEACHERS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS

EDWIN SMITH, *State College*

The minimum requirement in the training of teachers of high-school mathematics should be substantially as follows, in so far as teachers possessing the required qualifications are available:

1. Graduation from a four-year course in a college or university requiring a four-year high-school course for admission, or a similar period of study in an institution of the same academic standing.
2. The major subject of the college course should be Mathematics, and the minor subject should include courses allied and related to mathematics. The major course should consist of Trigonometry, Analytical Geometry, College Algebra, Differential and Integral Calculus, History of Mathematics, Differential Equations, and a course treating of Elementary Mathematics from an advanced view point. The minor courses should be chosen from a group which includes Mechanics, Physics, Surveying, Astronomy and Statistics, and at least two courses should be taken.
3. Two or more courses designed to give the prospective teacher a knowledge of society should be selected from a group including History, Economics, Political Science, Sociology and similar subjects.
4. One or more courses designed to give a knowledge of the individual, in particular the high-school pupil, should be taken from a group including Psychology, Ethics, Philosophy, and Logic.
5. Three or more courses should be required from a group including those generally offered in the department or schools of Education in our colleges and universities, in particular such courses as Secondary Education, Principles of Education, High School Administration, History of Education, Educational Hygiene, Educational Psychology and Educational Measurements.

6. Practice teaching of a class in high-school mathematics in a demonstration school or a good well-organized public or private high school for at least one semester.

7. In special cases these minimum requirements should be extended so as to prepare teachers for special groups of students which are found in technical, commercial, vocational, or secondary schools. This special training should, if the prospective teacher has not already had the opportunity, bring him into a knowledge of and into a contact with the trade or industry which his students will probably enter.

The colleges and universities of the United States offer ample facilities for the training of secondary-school mathematics teachers which I have suggested. No less than forty of the best institutions of the country are offering work along these general lines.

The ideal training should require a specialized mathematical course in a college or university and this should be followed by at least one year of graduate professional study. The professional study should include original investigation and research in some problem concerning the teaching of secondary-school mathematics. Even with this additional study the standards would be lower than those required of other professions such as Law, Medicine, and the Ministry.

THE TRAINING OF MATHEMATICS TEACHERS

J. H. MINNICK, *University of Pennsylvania*

The proper training of mathematics teachers can be determined only when we have determined the aims of mathematical education. Without discussing the matter we shall assume that the following are acceptable aims:

1. To give to each individual a means of quantitative adjustment to out-of-school situations.
2. To serve as a means of educational guidance by discovering the child's aptitudes and by showing him the vocations and professions opened by a mastery of mathematics.
3. To develop the child's abilities and capacities. This can be done best only when mathematics is taught in relation to real-life conditions.

In order that a teacher may realize these aims through mathematics it seems that he should have some such training as that outlined below:

I. Mathematical Content:—If a teacher is to present mathematics in its relation to real-life situations he must be able to select and reorganize his material anew to meet the needs of each new problem taken as the center of a piece of work. Out of school mathematics does not occur *logically* organized subject by subject and page by page. Hence a constant reorganization is necessary. Such teaching demands that a teacher shall be so familiar with the subjects which he teaches that he select and reorganize at will.

It will be impossible for any teacher to give a child an adequate view of the opportunities opened to him unless he has knowledge of mathematical subjects far in advance of anything that the child will study. Further, he must have a knowledge of these subjects in relation to their practical applications. Also a knowledge of the part which mathematics has played in the development of civilization in giving the child a view of the usefulness of the subject. Hence it seems reasonable that every teacher of mathematics should have a thorough training in the following subjects:

Arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, analytic geometry, calculus, and the history of mathematics.

II. Professional Training:—The teacher of mathematics does not work alone. He is a part of a school system and should have a knowledge of the aims and purposes of that system. Also, just as he should appreciate the significance of mathematics in the development of civilization, he should appreciate the part which education has played in the progress of society. He should also understand the child's mind with which he is to work and the best way of presenting his subject to the child. Hence his professional training should include the history of education, secondary education, elements of school administration, educational psychology, special methods in mathematics, and practice teaching.

III. Experience in Out-of School Life:—If a teacher is to present mathematics as a means of solving problems which the child will meet out of school, then he should have as much experience as possible in the offices, shops, stores, factories, etc. where the boys and girls will find their future employment. Reading about such work will not give the teacher any such real idea of the problems involved as will first-hand experience. Hence it seems reasonable that every teacher of mathematics should have at least a year of experience in those out-of school activities in which mathematics finds frequent application and that this experience shall be as varied as possible. Within certain limits school boards should accept such experience gained during the summer vacations in lieu of study in summer schools.

IV. *Cultural Training*:—Our teacher of mathematics is not only a part of a mathematical department and of a school system, but he is also a part of society. Also the child whom he is training will have not only a mathematical, but a complete social environment to which he must be adjusted. Hence it is essential that the teacher of mathematics shall have a broad view of the society to which he and his pupils belong and this requires a knowledge of some such subject as sociology, English, science, history, economics, and political science.

Such a training will require at least four years of college work built upon a four-year high school course. It will be expensive, but it will pay both the teacher and the state. When teachers have had some such training we may expect better things in mathematics; but until then we must be content with the slavish following of formal text books.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES



(1.) AIMS AND PURPOSES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY

E. B. deSAUZI, *Director of Modern Languages, Cleveland, Ohio*

The principle aim of foreign language teaching is to impart a comprehensive, integral command of the language taught, that is to say, that the student should always be able to read, write and speak and understand within the limits of the vocabulary so far studied and grammatical constructions so far taught. The process must be a process of simultaneous growth along these various lines.

(1) Teachers must impart to students the ability to read. Reading is not deciphering; by reading it is meant that the meaning of the sentences read must flash to the mind without passing through the intermediary of the mother tongue. We must accustom them to think in the foreign language. To this end it is advisable to abolish translation from French, Spanish and German into English, as it is a harmful habit and a very inefficient use to make of the time at our disposal.

(2) The ability to understand, that is to say, granted that the student has had the vocabulary and grammatical forms involved, the meaning of the sentences must flash through his mind instantaneously without first passing through the intermediary of his mother tongue.

(3) The ability to speak. The teaching of a foreign language that doesn't achieve the ability to express oneself within the limit of the vocabulary and principles studied, is mis-directed teaching. In learning to speak, the correct method is not to commit to memory a stock of ready-made sentences; a language is too rich, too complex to be mastered merely by memorizing. The student must pass through two stages; the conscious one, during which he constructs his sentences by a process of reasoning, by applying certain principles; a sub-conscious stage, which is the result of the preceding one, and during which the sentences, having become thoroughly mastered by frequent repetition, are expressed without involving the same reflection.

(4) The ability to write. While a very limited amount of formal composition (English into French, Spanish or German) may be used to clinch accurate application of grammatical rules and idiomatic expressions, teachers will find that informal composition (directly

into the foreign tongue) is far more dependable as a means of leading students to write sentences that have a foreign flavor instead of merely English constructions with foreign words. A certain amount of commercial correspondence should be taught.

(5) The ability to pronounce correctly, that is to say, the acquisition of a pronunciation that is not offensive to the native. Correct pronunciation should be the obsession of the teacher throughout the foreign language course. It must be the object of constant drill, though phonetic transcriptions are not advised; they introduce a useless intermediary when none is really needed. Teachers should have a knowledge of phonetics because through this study alone, they are able to fix their own pronunciation and acquire the knowledge of imparting sounds to students.

(6) Foreign language teaching must introduce the students to the life and customs and literature of the foreign nations.

(a) For cultural reasons, to open to him the rich mine of thoughts, of ideals, contained in foreign literatures, to broaden his field of vision and to eliminate narrow provincialism.

(b) To make him understand the genius of other nations and to contribute to the realization of universal peace by the understanding of other nations' viewpoints and ideals. This problem is eminently one of education and to the solution of this problem we hope to see modern language teachers with vision contribute.

(c) For commercial reasons, a man with a practical knowledge of a language and who at the same time has a sympathetic understanding of the ideals and customs, manners and idiosyncrasies of the people with whom he is dealing, has a far greater chance of success, everything being otherwise equal.

This familiarity with a foreign nation is not achieved by reading a manufactured text which imparts a lengthy series of facts and statistics but by reading carefully selected texts which are characteristically French or Spanish, and by series of side-talks by the teacher whenever suggested by the reading or by the daily newspapers.

(7) The study of a modern language must have disciplinary value. The method used by the teacher must arouse the habit of accurate thinking; it must teach the student to compare, to discriminate; it must give him nimbleness of thought. Oral drill will be found to be the best means to impart such mental discipline, but an oral drill, that requires exercise of analytical and reflective faculties and is not merely an exercise of memory. Oral and aural drills are now the best means advised to vitalize the teaching, to maintain interest.

Such drill, if conducted properly, will achieve every one of our aims, including the ability to read, for actual tests have demonstrated that the shortest road to even a reading knowledge of a language is through oral drill. The mastery of forms, of idiomatic expressions and of vocabularies is impossible, or at least very rarely achieved by any other means. Oral drill furnishes the motivation so necessary to keep students alert.

(8) While the study of a foreign language contributes greatly to the improvement of the student's English, it is not advisable to go out of one's way a great deal to teach formal English in a foreign language class. Translation into the mother tongue has been sometimes advocated on the ground that it helps the knowledge of English. It is greatly a fallacy. It defeats, furthermore, several of our most important aims. The English of the student is benefited mostly by his reasoning of grammatical forms of the foreign language, and his conscious application of such grammatical relationship. It increases his vocabulary whenever the language study is related to his own and it gives him that somewhat elusive ability called the language sense.

One fact stands out prominently when we take a retrospective look in modern language teaching and that is the woeful lack of results. The war has demonstrated, greatly to our humiliation, that our teaching and the produce of our teaching could not stand the test that they were put to in the emergency. Here is a blot that we must remove; it is the oft repeated saying "Oh, I had only high school or college Spanish, French, etc." We must produce results, practical results or our subjects will be wiped out of the curriculum and justly so. Let us not defend old methods on the ground that they impart that immeasurable thing called mental culture. I fail to see the amount of culture contained in merely studying theoretically grammatical facts and in translating pages after pages of good literature into usually poor English, but I can see a great disciplinary value in expressing oneself through a conscious process of reasoning into a foreign tongue. A new era is dawning in the educational field; a re-adjustment of values. Let us modern language teachers step to the front and justify the time spent in our subject by adequate returns in accomplishments.

(2.) THE RELATIVE AMOUNT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN A
WELL BALANCED HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

ARTHUR J. JONES, *University of Pennsylvania*

A. B. MEREDITH, *Asst. Commissioner of Education, New Jersey*

Dr. Jones felt in the first place that for some pupils, not necessarily the dull ones, there should be no foreign language at all in a well balanced curriculum; in the second place, that, under present conditions and present college entrance requirements, a maximum of four or five years of foreign language would not be out of place in the curriculum of a small high school that might be poorly equipped for science teaching. But this should be determined by the relative needs of groups of pupils. Finally, although admitting that the relative value of science and social studies, on the one hand, and of foreign languages, on the other, when considered on strictly scientific grounds of proof, was not established with any degree of absolute certainty, Dr. Jones maintained that we should materially change the amount of foreign language offered in our high schools, because we were living in a different kind of society from that of our forefathers of 300 years ago; the world had greatly progressed since their day; science had grown to be a daily necessity in our lives; civic, state and national responsibilities came home to each citizen, and the humanities were no longer confined to Latin and Greek, nor even to the modern foreign languages, but had broadened in scope so as to concern science, history, civics, economics, and the mother tongue.

Altho conscious of the fact that 25% of the high school graduates of New Jersey attend higher institutions of learning, Dr. Meredith spoke in favor of having foreign languages elective in any high school curriculum.

(3.) THE PROBLEM OF METHOD IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

G. C. L. RIEMER, *State Department of Public Instruction*

In his discussion Dr. Riener passed in review the various methods of modern language teaching and urged that our teachers use an eclectic method, choosing and adapting to their needs the best features of the methods now in vogue throughout the world.

(1) In the Grammar or Grammar-Translation Method there is nothing for us today. We no longer have much faith in formal discipline. Grammar study is dry and deadening. There is no broadening of the mind thru contact with the life, ideas, and the complete forms of thought and expression of the foreign tongue. The testimony of the men who studied in this way is rather unfavorable, and a large majority know and speak only of this mechanical side of language study.

(2) For the Natural or Conversation Method, the pupils should be younger. There is no system about it, too much depends on the personality of the teacher. It lacks the phonetic basis, and so the pronunciation is inaccurate and unintelligible. In its first stages it makes no use of reading or writing, dealing with conversation pure and simple. Reading is thus postponed to too late a period for our conditions and desires. No systematic grammar is taught, or the statements of connected grammatical principles are postponed to a very late stage. The fluent use of incorrect forms, and vagueness and lack of precision of expression result. But it awakens enthusiasm and interest, and brings life and vivacity into the instruction. This vivifying influence should not be overlooked.

(3) The Psychological Method, also called the Gouin or Bétis Method, makes use of the principle of the association of ideas and the habit of mental visualization. It arranges the material in groups, the parts of which are logically connected. Thereby, it gives a ready command over a large, well arranged, and well-digested vocabulary. It fascinates the pupil and holds his attention. But reading and literary study are postponed to a late period; the treatment of pronunciation is unsatisfactory; and the cultivation of the esthetic sense is neglected.

(4) The so-called Reading or Translation Method aims merely at the translation or reading of the foreign idiom. The text is used from the very beginning, and there is a great deal of translation at sight. Pronunciation is neglected; the pupil's ear is not trained to understand the spoken word. In this way the ear and the vocal organs are not used as aids to the memory. Nor does it lay a good basis for the pupil to continue his work in the future. Furthermore, the teacher is in danger of becoming indolent.

(5) The Phonetic Method, called by some the Direct, or Reform Method, contains much that is exceedingly commendable and quite adaptable to the requirements of our educational system. Appealing to the ear, the eye, and the vocal chords, it uses the associations of all three as aids to the memory. There is no danger of the teacher becoming indolent, and the class never lacks interest or enthusiasm. We cannot, however, adopt it in its entirety. We do not have suffi-

cient time. In our high schools we have at best but a four years' course, while six years and more are allotted to the work in Europe. For various reasons we differ, besides, in aim and final goal. We cannot, therefore, make wide use of the method without some modifications and adjustments.

(a) Pronunciation. An adjustment in the teaching of pronunciation is necessary. The advocates of this method pay much attention to pronunciation, and use practical phonetics wherever possible. We should do the same. Unfortunately, however, many of our teachers know nothing about phonetics. Possessing a good pronunciation, they must try to teach a fairly acceptable pronunciation by having their pupils imitate them. In the case of French that is, however, all but impossible. Our teachers should make endeavors to gain some knowledge of phonetics. It is an excellent aid in teaching any modern language. Considerable can be easily acquired with the help of a hand mirror and books like that of Prokosch, Grandgent, Hempl, Churchman, or Geddes. The method demands the free use of phonetic charts and texts. The charts seem excellent, but the texts have, in my mind, a doubtful value.

(b) Grammar. And there should be some modifications in the teaching of grammar. According to the Direct Method grammar is taught inductively and without the use of the pupil's native tongue. On account of the age of our pupils and the shorter period of time devoted to the subject, it seems advisable to teach some of the grammatical principles deductively. A clear and concise statement of the principle, and at first the use of English might here be permissible, should be followed by oral exercises until the principle at stake becomes second nature. The acquisition of grammatical facts is, however, a gradual process. The pupil gains in language power thru direct and concrete contact, rather than by learning empty, meaningless rules and paradigms. He should be made to deal with complete phrases, clauses, and sentences rather than isolated, disconnected words and syllables.

(c) Composition. The advocates of the Direct Method advise doing no translation from the pupil's native tongue into the foreign idiom. They feel that written work in the foreign language, based on material with which the pupil has been made very familiar, should be substituted in its stead. Many of our best teachers, however, still think that a little translation into the foreign idiom is very beneficial. It often gives definiteness to the instruction.

(d) Speaking. On account of lack of time, speaking cannot be stressed as much as the Direct Method requires. There should, however, be a great deal of oral work; the main purpose of which

should be to train the pupil's ear, to teach him a good pronunciation, to develop a feeling for what is correct, to enable him better to appreciate and understand what he reads or chances to hear, and to arouse enthusiasm and interest in the work as a whole. With such a basis, experience has shown, the pupil will easily acquire the art of speaking if opportunity and practice is afforded him. In class, our teachers should, however, use the foreign language exclusively, with the possible exception of concise statements of grammatical principles.

(e) Reading. The center of our instruction should be formed by speaking. The Direct Method postpones the use of the text too long, for its advocates require that the pupil first become familiar with the spoken idiom. They exercise great care in the selection of the reading material, and we should do the same. If the selections are skilfully made, the pupil becomes acquainted with the life, customs, aspirations, and ideals of the foreign nation. The aim should always be to teach the pupil to read directly, that is, without the medium of English. Translation into the pupil's mother-tongue should be avoided as much as possible. It should be reduced to a minimum. But the teacher must here be clever, well equipped, wide-awake and alive; or the pupils will carry away but hazy notions and vague ideas of what they read. Too much should never be taken for granted. The books must not be too difficult, too advanced for the class.

It would seem to our advantage, therefore, to use the vivifying influence of the so-called Natural Method, the well arranged vocabularies of the Gouin Method, and many of the excellent features of the Direct Method, directing our attention from the very beginning, however, to the acquisition of the power to read the foreign language without translation.

(4.) THE PREPARATION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER

HOMER H. GAGE, *Lock Haven Normal School*
HOWARD R. OMWAKE, *Dean of Franklin and Marshall College*

Each speaker recommended a more thoro and complete preparation for the teaching of foreign languages, both ancient and modern, than college graduates of today possess. They deplored the fact that so few teachers had really had opportunity to make specific

preparation for their high school work, and attributed the poor results in the field of language largely to this very lack of opportunity.

The following four resolutions were passed:

(1) Under present conditions the aim and purpose of foreign language teaching should be intelligent reading, that is, reading without translation, without the medium of English; due regard being at all times paid, however, to a good pronunciation, to the training of the pupil's ear so that he may understand the language when spoken, and to an accurate knowledge of the grammar.

(2) Foreign languages, both ancient and modern, should be elective in the various curricula of the high schools of our State.

(3) The teachers of modern foreign languages should use an eclectic method, the basis of which should be formed by the so-called direct method.

(4) The Department should urge the colleges of our State to provide future teachers, and teachers now in service, more specific preparation for their profession. A teacher of French, for instance, should have carried French as a major during four years in college, besides having spent four years upon it during his course in the high school. There should be courses of fitting content and courses of method. And the minimum preparation for the teaching of a modern foreign language should, at all times, include the ability to speak and understand the language in question. Since it is practically impossible to teach French pronunciation without an accurate knowledge of the physiology of the various sounds, colleges should offer courses in phonetics.

HIGH SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



1. TEACHING CITIZENSHIP THROUGH HIGH SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

(a.) JAMES M. GLASS, *Principal, Washington Junior High School, Rochester, N. Y.*

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in their bulletin "The Cardinal Principles" say: "The objectives must determine the organization or else the organization will determine the objectives."

The phrasing of the topic for discussion recognizes the significance of this fundamental principle in administration, namely, "Teaching Citizenship through High School Administration"—the objective "Citizenship" determines the administration.

Completing the quotation from Cardinal Principles—"If the basis of school administration is that of subjects of study, an overvaluation of the importance of subjects will result and the tendency will be for each teacher to regard his chief function as that of leading students to subject mastery, rather than that of using the subject of study and the activities of the school as means of achieving the objectives of education."

We cannot overlook or deny the fact that subject content, as a factor in high school administration makes a big contribution to citizenship training. The wealth of material for teaching good citizenship in literature, oral and written English, and in social science (history, current events and community civics) is too evident to need more than mention.

But subject content does just this one thing—it teaches good citizenship ideals. It does not guarantee that the teaching functions.

We and all adults learn to be good citizens by practice in the art of citizenship. We may be superlatively wise in comprehension of right citizenship, but if we fail to exercise the privilege of citizenship, we are unworthy of the honorable name of good citizens.

It is as true of students in school as of adults out of school that good citizenship functions in proportion to its actual practice.

Citizenship training involves a progress step by step. Each step must be consciously interpreted before the next higher step can be taken. Conscious interpretation comes from experience. Therefore, as experience brings to a student's consciousness the significance of concrete acts of citizenship, he progresses from the duty

put into practice to the next higher duty, similar in kind, which he comprehends only as part of the content of the teaching he has received.

Hence, if citizenship training is to find expression concretely in the lives of adolescents, they must enter into the conscious experience of being actual citizens and if they are to progress in the art of citizenship, application in their individual lives should coincide with the teaching step by step.

Dr. Dewey says: "School is not a preparation for life, it is life." Adolescent boys and girls want to live, not be taught merely how to live.

Henry Neumann in his "Moral Values in Secondary Education" says: "For their period of life the school is or should be the special field for their activities as citizens. The proper performance of these activities now is the best preparation for the civic duties of the years to follow."

How can a school be organized to serve as "the special field for student activities as citizens?" I shall not presume to formulate an answer for all schools but attempt to tell you how one school is seeking to answer the problem. We believe that each school must find its own solution if it would keep thereby its own personality, its greatest asset to achievement.

The school is an organized community with its own corporate life. Faculty and student body compose its citizenship. A school conceived as a Democracy must never partake of the nature of an autocracy or an oligarchy.

However, self-government in the hands of the inexperienced is a dangerous instrument and consequently student participation in school control needs the unremitting and sympathetic control of the faculty. Teachers become guides in the art of citizenship. They both teach good citizenship through subject content—literature and history, current events and community civics, and they guide unceasingly but sympathetically the students' application in the school activities.

Student activities should be given the same dignity of a time provision as has always been the case with the school curriculum. Here it is particularly true that the objectives determine the administration. For, if the time provision is omitted because of the apparently greater demands of the curriculum upon the time allotment the administration does determine the objective.

For two years at Washington Junior High School we struggled to maintain a schedule for organized student activities by taking time from the time allotment of 90 minutes to each of the four periods of the day. It was the sad old story of robbing Peter to pay Paul, and as usual Peter was justified in his righteous indigna-

tion. Teachers who would normally and enthusiastically endorse student participation in school control became indifferent, if not antagonistic because of the theft of time from the recitation and study period. The loss of time averaged for these two years ten minutes per period. Fortunately for the salvation of the organized activities of the school, we were driven to reform the day's program to include a School Activities Period of 35 minutes each day.

The effect upon the attitude of Faculty and Student body toward the school socialization was immediate and we believe in the light of two years of actual experience with the new schedule that the effect will be permanent. By dignifying organized activities by a time provision the school became "the special field for the students' activities as citizens." There came almost at once an expansion which can be limited only by the ability to devise and the power to find those to whom responsibility may be delegated.

The school activities Period is used at present as follows:

Monday 8:30-8:45—15 min.

HOME ROOM ACTIVITIES:

I—Class Business.

- a. Announcement of weekly activities.
- b. Banking.
- c. Distribution of library books.

II—Home Room Teacher as Counselor.

- a. Assistance and direction of class officers.
- b. Class cooperation in school government.
- c. Establishment of class standard of conduct and courtesy.
- d. Report card conferences.
- e. Vocational Guidance.

Tuesday 8:30-9:05—35 min.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT ACTIVITIES:

I—Class Meeting (home room teacher as counselor).

II—Group meeting of student officers.

III—Class Meeting (Associate home room teacher as counselor).

IV—School Community Meeting in assembly (in charge of School Community officers).

Wednesday 8:30-9:05—35 min.

WEEKLY ASSEMBLY PROGRAM:

- I—Speakers: Public interests, civic progress, etc.
- II—Faculty programs.
- III—Demonstration of Club Activities.
- IV—Department exhibitions.

Thursday 11:20-11:55—35 min.

FACULTY ACTIVITIES:

- I—Faculty Meetings.
- II—Conferences (organization of subject teachers in groups conducting their own conferences).
- III—Demonstration lessons.
- IV—Faculty visits to departments (Vocational Guidance).

Friday 10:55-11:50—55 Min.

STUDENT CLUB ACTIVITIES:

- I—Direction of Faculty Leader and Club organization.
- II—Membership voluntary.
- III—Organization and direction of all clubs in charge of Faculty Executive Committee.

The unit of the student organization is the home room section of 30 to 35 pupils with the home room teacher acting as counselor. Members of the faculty not home room teachers are assigned as associate home room teachers, each to two classes. Students coming from the single teacher control of the elementary grades are assured through the home room teacher guidance the wholesome and sympathetic influence of a grade teacher over a group for whose welfare she feels individually responsible.

The student officers are elected by their classmates of the home room section. Each home room is organized as follows:

1. *President*—The chosen leader, the teacher's proxy, assuming charge of the class in case of the teacher's absence, presiding officer in class meeting, maintaining class standards in class decorum and participation in school plans affecting all classes. He is taught that his success as class leader is conditioned upon his ability to delegate to classmates and thereby secure contributions to class success and honor from all class members.

2. *Vice-president*—In addition to the usual function, the business manager of his class in their participation in both class and school community activities; also the Safety First representative in charge of Fire Drills, inspecting and remedying fire hazards and menaces to sanitation and health.

3. *Secretary-Treasurer*—Medium of communication between teachers with each other and the school office, in charge of school reports, the class bulletin board, the custodian of class funds and the banker of the class on banking days, issuing receipts for deposits in School Savings accounts, sale of Thrift stamps, etc.

4. *Usher*—The reception committee of one to receive visitors, to escort them about the building extending the courtesies of the class to all who come to the class room; the class guide leading the class about the corridors and upon his own initiative extricating the class from corridor congestion.

5. *Deputy*—The teacher's assistant in maintaining discipline, dismissing the class from recitation rooms, maintaining proper decorum in corridor passing, a strong personality learning valuable lessons in control over others and respected in proportion to his ability to do it.

The Tuesday morning class meetings are under the charge of class officers. The business of the class meeting is conducted by parliamentary procedure. Vital questions of concern to the class, though seemingly trifles to the more mature mind, are subjects of earnest discussion. The decisions frequently involve personal sacrifice for class or school welfare and by concrete cases such sacrifices awaken in the student's consciousness the true significance of real democracy,—“The voluntary surrender of some private good for the up-building of some community good.”

The program of the meeting is in charge of a program committee who assign topics for research in the school library. The programs cover a range of subjects outside the school curriculum—usually of current and public interest—participation in the program is spontaneous and genuine.

The student officers are further organized into a cabinet of class presidents, a council of vice-presidents etc. under the guidance of a Faculty Director. The purpose of the group organization is to instruct in the duties of the office, to profit by experience of others holding the same office, and to discuss methods of improvement in the service rendered the class and the school.

The home room sections are federated into one large “School Community” inclusive of faculty and student body. The relationship is that of the states to the nation. The school community meets

once a month in the assembly under the charge of the community officers. The appeals made to the student body by student officers for loyalty and cooperative service—the school campaigns successfully launched at these meetings—are memories to be cherished and never fail to elicit the deep gratitude of the faculty in their capacity as administrative officers of the school.

The functions of student control, when matters of concern with the whole student body are delegated to S. C. committees composed of the older students. These committees include:

1. *Luncheon Committee*—In control of students' luncheon room assuming the entire business and conduct management in the dining room.

2. *Bicycle Committee*—Receiving and distributing bicycles at the room provided—initiating and putting into successful execution their own plans to accomplish the purpose orderly and expeditiously.

3. *Messenger Committee*—To carry emergency notices to the faculty.

4. *S. C. Deputies*—Assuming charge of student body on school grounds, in entering building at dismissals and serving as traffic officers in corridor passing. These duties tax the full capacities of the strongest students. An efficient S. C. Deputy will not gravitate in later life to a subordinate position. He will become a leader because he has been trained in leadership.

Because failure of the class unit in competition with other classes to win honor for the home room results from a disregard of collective responsibility, a wholesome regard for cooperative effort is implanted in the hearts of boys and girls. To quote from the bulletin on Vocational Guidance—"Twenty years from now undoubtedly the spirit of cooperation will permeate vocational life more than it does today, and because of that fact school children must acquire the spirit of cooperation through the social organization of class rooms and school community."

To quote again from the bulletin "Moral Values"—"the greatest step forward in the pedagogy of character building will be taken by those schools that find methods of enlisting everyone of their students in activities of cooperative service."

The student activities are the channels through which the school motto "Do in Cooperation" finds its expression. The significance of the motto is revealed to students because through conscious concrete experience they learn to grasp its real meaning.

The motivation of the cooperative service of students with each other and with the faculty should be that of personal service and sacrifice for general or corporate welfare. We have adopted as the interpretation of the school motto a quotation from David Grayson's *Adventures in Contentment*, which when more fully comprehended in later years will find a lodgment in pupils' hearts and will become the motivating principle of their lives as democratic citizens.

"Come to order, says the chairman, and we have here at this moment in operation the greatest institution in this round world: the institution of free-self-government. Great in its simplicity, great in its unselfishness! The voluntary surrender of some private good for the upbuilding of some community good: it is in such exercise that the fibre of democracy grows sound and strong. There is, after all, in this world no real good for which we do not have to surrender something!"

The School Activities period provides for a weekly school assembly and for organized student clubs. School loyalty and a school unity find their origin and life in the assemblies. Stress is laid upon student participation in the programs; these comprise department activities, demonstrations of class meetings, club work, matters of public interest, civic and national campaigns.

The assembly is the school forum, where the school finds its own coherence and where contact is made with the larger interests of civic, national and international communities. The realization, through concrete experiences, of a school community is an assurance that the consciousness of similar though larger communities awakened in adolescence will find expression in maturity through active American citizenship. The democracy of the school and the democracy of the adult citizenship are paralleled in motivation, methods of expression and conscious realization; they differ only in the degree of actual achievement which is, of course, one chief distinction between adolescence and maturity.

Student clubs came into existence as an organized part of student activities with the school activities period. They are practically impossible on a scale to include the entire student body except under a definite time allotment. The scope of the club work is determined by the extra-curriculum interests of the students and the ability to find club leaders among the faculty. Every student in the school is a club member. Membership in some club is required but selection of the particular club is wholly voluntary. It is a matter of considerable surprise to discover the number of students who have not developed the taste for and pursuit of a wholesome extra-cur-

riculum activity. The perverted taste for the unwholesome outside interest is not corrected through denial of its gratification but through the substitution of a taste for the wholesome interest.

One of the seven Cardinal Principles is the "worthy use of leisure." In explanation the Cardinal Principles say:

"Every individual should have a margin of time for the cultivation of personal and social interests. This leisure, if worthily used, will recreate his powers and enlarge and enrich his life, thereby making him better able to meet his responsibilities. The unworthy use of leisure impairs health, disrupts home life, lessens vocational efficiency, and destroys civic-mindedness. The tendency in industrial life, aided by legislation, is to decrease the working hours of large groups of people. While shortened hours tend to lessen the harmful reactions that arise from prolonged strain, they increase, if possible, the importance of preparation for leisure. In view of these considerations, education for the worthy use of leisure is of increasing importance as an objective."

May the day be hastened when we shall cease the attempt to justify, but accept as an unquestionable administrative obligation, the avocational guidance of students in secondary education.

The clubs include musical activities—glee clubs and choruses. School Orchestra and a boys' band; the "Pathfinder" staff editing the school paper; athletic organizations of all kinds for boys and girls, organized games, hiking, swimming, and drill clubs, a boys' military club, a girls' relief corps and athletic teams; literary clubs—debating, dramatic, two minute men's club, story-telling and short story club, Watch-your-speech club; French and Spanish clubs; patriotic league for girls; camp fire girls auxiliary club and boys' scout patrol leaders training clubs; Science clubs—wild flower, bird, chemistry club and general science; travel club and exploration club, stamp club and camera club; poultry club, wireless club, kite club, first aid club, scrap book club; many clubs of a vocational character utilizing the special equipment of the differentiated courses on the extension plan—Electricity, Drafting, Steel-working, Cartooning, Handicraft, Aero club, Shorthand, Pencil-drawing, Pen-lettering, Knitting, Millinery, Tatting, Embroidery, Crochet and Girls' Handicraft clubs.

The club organization is directed by an Executive Committee of the faculty. There are 49 clubs with 64 faculty leaders and a membership of 1650 students. Each club has its own student organization and club meetings are conducted as are class meetings by student officers with faculty guidance. By reducing the School activities period on Monday to 15 minutes, the Friday club period is increased to 55 minutes.

It has been said that "the secondary school must be organized with the idea of giving adolescents so much of good to do that the bad cannot creep in."

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs gives as one of the vitalizing purposes of secondary education—"the teaching of children to do better the desirable things which they are bound to do anyway." Students in their clubs apply this vitalizing purpose in actual practice.

Class meetings, S. C. assemblies, officer group meetings and student clubs develop leadership, provides for the by-products of public speaking, teach parliamentary practice and by actual experience demonstrate the need of rules to govern discussions, the principles of representative government are understood in concrete cases as appointment of committees, election of officers, and the necessity of accepting, without question or protest, the rule of the majority is demonstrated by motions affecting individual privilege.

Office holding is soon recognized as a responsibility to be fulfilled. The honor of the office is soon forgotten in the discharge of its duties. An officer's classmates are quick to detect the shirker and will administer a reprimand or will remove the offender from office.

Student management of student activities develops power of initiative, executive ability and business capacity.

School socialization and all other school administrative duties require the same executive qualifications essential to a successful business or industrial executive: (1) organize, (2) deputize, (3) supervise. In school administration we are compelled to organize, we are urged to supervise, but we frequently forget to deputize. And in delegation lies the secret of a successful and comprehensive school socialization. The faculty members serving as home room counselors, faculty directors of student participation, vocational counselors, club leaders in avocational guidance and active participants in all faculty conferences and committees share the administrative duties of the executive head and assure a democratic faculty organization. By organization of the class, delegation to the class and supervision over the class the teachers in turn train helpful administrative power in students.

In the curriculum teaching the spirit of delegation finds its counterpart and reflection in supervised study and socialized recitation. Here again, the teacher becomes the silent guide of student activity, applying to students the principle of delegation while reserving to herself the principle of organization and supervision.

Delegation is not accepted as an administrative device to shift responsibility—it finds its justification only in training for power in others. It is entirely democratic in conception and effect. Each delegated duty provides opportunity to the executive head, the fac-

ulty administrator and student officer for another and usually greater more vital purpose. The greater the delegation through the ranks the more varied the activities of the whole body.

When delegation is once accepted as the guiding policy of school administration, a still higher conception will find birth in the administrator's mind:

- (1) Faith in the power of all to give service.
- (2) Inspiration to service.
- (3) Recognition of service rendered.

This conception of the service of an administrator in his capacity as the servant of all makes impossible the autocratic abuse of power and becomes the fundamental basis of a general democratic administration.

The school administrator who conceives his highest function to be that of a servant to all has laid the corner stone of a school democracy and citizenship training has its foundation upon which to build. It is the rock upon which the house will stand—without it the house stands upon the sands and great will be the fall thereof.

Summarizing the experiences of nearly five years with student participation in school control and organized student activities, we have learned first and foremost helpful lessons in humility in the discovery of latent powers in others brought to expression through delegation of responsibility. More particularly we have come to accept the following as safe rules for guidance:

1. Make your own organization—respect the personality of your own school.
2. Provide a definite time schedule—dignify school activities by a time provision.
3. Maintain the interest—keep the organization alive—Eternal vigilance is the price of success.
4. Provide for teacher control, sympathetically, never dictatorily.
5. Have unbounded Faith—and you will find that faith in boys and girls is the substance of things seen as well as hoped for.
6. The School Creed: Since the school is the training field for Democracy, Democracy must be the model of the school.

TEACHING CITIZENSHIP THROUGH SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

(b) WILLIAM McANDREW, *Associate Superintendent, New York City*

Through all the specific details of the highly interesting school doings related by Principal Glass of the Washington Junior High School of Rochester gleam the warm light of service for someone else.

Forty years ago last June our high school issued one of those abominations of self conceit; the class annual. The first thing in it was the picture of us six editors. We blackmailed the town merchants for useless advertisements. We bludgeoned every pupil and teacher into paying a real dollar for a copy of the volume. We cleared \$56.00. We spent it all on a banquet to ourselves, forty years ago.

Last June the same crime was committed in a Pennsylvania High School.

Our school glorified little prigs for getting high marks by putting their names in print as salutatorian, valedictorian. Our school gave prizes and praise to those who had the highest marks in Latin and Algebra. It printed in gold the name of the boy with the highest average and hung his tablet on the wall. Pennsylvania High Schools are still doing it.

What is the effect? Turning the children's attention to self-glory. Do we need this?

The fundamentals of American democracy, the big business of schools, are equality, brotherhood, generosity, service for others not for self, community spirit, not individual gain, public welfare not private satisfaction; nobility, the essence of which is the absence of all self-seeking.

The motive aroused by prizes, honorable mention, name in print, picture in the annual, college degrees, if it has any trace of nobility in it is alarmingly susceptible to smother by self-glory, self-conceit, self-gratification.

Pure democracy doesn't blossom into prizes, print, portraits, or Ph. D's.

It is time, that our schools, which are paid for that they may be the chief agency of promoting democracy, equality, public, nor private welfare; threw overboard the relics of European appetite for personal mention, prizes, medals, prominence, titles.

It is time for more of us, like Mr. Glass, to devise exercises in democracy, fraternity, public mindedness, otherishness instead of selfishness.

Must we wait for a tragic war before we devote our school systems to public service, bandages, gift books, contributions to the country?

Team work for the class; team work for the school is better than prize-winning for oneself, but it's only on the way toward the larger patriotism.

Let us include in the regular events of the school, affairs that are for the benefit of wider areas than that enclosed in the yard. Let us provide that the gate-money of football matches is not so much for the team, for the athletic association, for the school.

Let us include the town library, the hospital, the orphanage, some other municipal or county, or state or federal benefit.

Ditto as to the glee club concert, the dramatic society play, the minstrel show, the class party.

Let a school make baskets and make stabbers on the end of sticks and march forth every clear Tuesday and Thursday and spear every banana skin and bit of rubbish, put it in the basket and give it to a patriotic janitor.

This is not so much to help the street cleaning department (although the best meaning and ablest street-cleaning department ought to be helped). This is to give the class exercise in public service. Its results are as valuable as the exercise of declining a pronoun.

Have the wood-working class and the art class make ornamental signs: "The Jefferson School is helping keep these streets clean. This is our Town." Interest the newspapers in it.

People in the town, itself, will begin to think more about their own public duties. The town will begin to have a more affectionate regard for its school. The town will more joyously pay and increase its school tax.

Let the school have an out-door festival, planting trees for the town, not for the school. Put a permanent sign on the tree-guard, "This tree, presented by the George Washington School, is cared for by it. This is our Town."

Let the botany class raise flowers for the hospital or for the town hall. The Michigan Central Railroad raises flowers to give its passengers when the train passes through Ypsilanti.

It is as hard for a school to steep in its own selfishness as it is for a man.

There is also need of giving individual pupils regular lessons in public service.

What is the city paying per year to educate you, Willie Jones?

What are you doing for your city?

Collection of food for the poor at Thanksgiving, collection of presents for the poor at Christmas, is not exercising Willie in generosity or public welfare. It is exercising Willie's Pa. Through Willie's own heart and pocket.

Let him earn a book for the town library or a picture for the poor house.

If you, and I, and every public school teacher cannot fill a sheet of foolscap with details of concrete public service that schools and school children can do for their towns, their counties, their states, their nation, we have our nerve to draw pay from the community as fitters for democracy.

The heart of youth is instinctively generous.

(The speaker related stories of spontaneous generosity and sacrifice by school children).

It was the generous heart of American youth that glorified the War.

To neglect to give this spirit practice; to see so many products of the public schools develop into profiteers, grafters, tight-wads, selfish and sinful spenders, is a sad sight for one who remembers that the schools were founded to preserve the American spirit which Jefferson, Lincoln, Roosevelt, declared is fraternal, brotherly, generous.

It is a sad thing to realize that the majority of gifts to our cities; monuments, fountains, hospitals, libraries, are from scandalously rich men who skimmed the cream from the earnings of laborers living in squalor.

The noblest offerings are those monuments, memorials or services given by societies, organizations, groups, in which each citizen gives from his savings or his labor.

The Cathedrals have in their structure, built in by thousands of common men, the work of devoted hearts and hands.

America may yet aspire to noble structures devoted to the service of people yet to come, civic cathedrals built by the united common people.

The public school house is the most suitable beginning for such a fact. Its ornamentation, its repair, could well be made a public festival inaugurating a participation of all the people in actual labor, in individual contribution of funds.

The public school house is the temple in which the solemn rites of generous public service should be celebrated; not mere repeating a salute to a flag or singing a national song, but more than lip service.

Rah-rah patriotism is immoral.

Prating of class spirit and school spirit is nonsense. It is beginning wrong end to.

Propose first some big, unselfish, democratic, public spirited thing to do, bigger than the clan, bigger than the school, and then the school and class spell-binders can shout to some purpose.

Socrates would not discuss "the good." "Good for what?" he asked, "Good for a cold? Good to eat? If you mean good for nothing in particular, I neither know nor do I care to know any such thing."

You know and care to know enough unselfish, generous services the active exuberant, high spirited boys and girls can do to make the golden days of the high school period shine with lustre. Give these youngsters so much of real, expanding, engaging, public service that they will be kept out of silly, window-smashing, red-painting, vandalizing, damage to public property.

Organize your exercises in public service as thoroughly as you do your reviews and written tests of the campaigns of that arch anti-democrat, J. Caesar, or your puttering puzzles of XY.

Realize the force of the words of your great Pennsylvanian, B. Franklin; "When it's all over, God will not ask of you, what did you know? what did you study? but what did you do, what did you do for mankind?"

2. GUIDANCE OF THE ADOLESCENT.

EDWARD RYNEARSON, *Director Vocational Guidance, Pittsburgh*

Educational Guidance is only one phase of the larger subject, vocational guidance. Our boys and girls while passing through our schools should be guided in the selections of those studies and schools that will best supply opportunities to reveal their aptitudes.

Our stock breeders attempt to develop strength or speed in horses, milk or meat in cattle, and flesh in hogs. Our athletes are trained to do their best, to subordinate pleasure, appetite, the desire for a good time, to one controlling purpose; it trains them to get out of their bodies every ounce of strength and endurance which they possess. If our schools could make young persons acquainted in some similar way with their hidden mental and moral power what a mighty force would one generation become!

These boys and girls have great potentialities and the work of the school is to make these become actualities. No doubt but there is in your school and mine boys and girls with native endowments of genius and leadership waiting to be aroused. The sympathetic, wide-awake teacher has enabled many men and women to discover themselves.

Educational guidance, therefore, is the conscious arrangement of the stimuli of the school, of the extra-curriculum activities, of as many influences as possible that will call into action all the inherited powers. This should precede, and assist in, vocational guidance.

The properly arranged curriculum is one factor in revealing the likes and dislikes of the child. Not only will the child discover himself but he may find out some things he must do in order to attain the coveted place. A boy who is weak in mathematics and who wishes to be an engineer will perceive that he must give more time and thought to his weak points.

The junior high school with its different courses offers an unusual opportunity for self discovery to the pupils in the seventh grade. Prevocation courses at this period are valuable to the pupils. Parents and teachers have an unsurpassed opportunity to observe the appearances of possible future vocations. These trying-out courses should not be confined to the industrial courses.

Our guidance must not be narrow or short sighted. Many vocations should be studied. The choices of young pupils should generally be between wide fields of activity and not between specific vocations at first.

The adolescent should not be kept with smaller and younger children too long. We have not always given the over-age, oversized boy or girl a fair chance. Many of these drop out of school because they are ashamed to be in graded classes with smaller and younger children. Sometimes teachers unconsciously embarrass these tall, lanky pupils by referring to their retardation. Our state could assist these pupils by urging our secondary schools to arrange courses suitable to the capacity and need of this group.

We ought to be perfectly honest in telling children that they ought not to expect to reach a high degree of success in any vocation for which they could not afford time for adequate initial preparation, or for which they did not possess the necessary general intelligence (as revealed by tests and surveys) to compete on an equal basis with the majority of the people now going into the vocation.

The positive values of the curriculum as a method of guidance have been presented. Have you ever thought that sometimes the course of study and, what is often more powerful, the course of instruction have misguided pupils? The boys and girls of our rural schools have pursued courses of study modeled so closely after those of the city and have been taught by so many city trained teachers that they have unconsciously been drawn to the cities and away from the farms through the ideals held up before them. This is being remedied now by our state department but it does show the power of the curriculum in guiding boys and girls.

The extra-curriculum activities of the school, when properly guided and guarded, are tributaries to the great, broad current of culture and knowledge. These activities should be made the basis of organizations where the relations of the individual to society

and of the society to the individual may be learned at first-hand. The activities should be so planned that they reveal tendencies. They offer almost unlimited opportunities for giving contacts with different phases of adult activities. These organizations, with the possible exception of athletic games, should be held in the school buildings and during periods set apart for this work. In this way teachers can assist, pupils will be punctual and regular in attendance, and the activities are under the jurisdiction of the school.

The assembly with its many-sided programs, is a third important factor in guidance.

The part-time school has come to stay. There are many strong arguments for it. The pupils who are out in the real vocations have a chance to measure themselves for the work. Our part-time classes in stenography, in salesmanship, in machine shop bring back to the school many suggestions to the teachers. The pupils have breathed the atmosphere of the work-a-day world.

Two million boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 16 are our annual sacrifice of devotees to juvenile jobs, most of which (87%) belong to the "blind alley" variety. These, according to reports from juvenile and adult courts, furnish most of our criminal, social, and labor problems. Even from money point of view it would be cheaper to enforce school attendance laws and to provide training adapted to the needs and capacity of the youth, than to bear the higher cost of correction and punishment later. Pennsylvania should establish guidance departments in all of our schools as well as to urge each community to make a survey of its vocations, the educational requirements to fill these, the chances for promotion, the health conditions, etc.

Closely dovetailed with the survey of vocations must be the cumulative records of the pupils from the fifth grade to the time of leaving school. These will not only be the scholastic records but also the teachers' estimates of other traits wanted by the employers. If pupils know that their habits of industry may decide their position, they may put forth a greater effort to meet the standards.

Intelligence tests are valuable in the measurement of general intelligence. The special abilities which so largely influence success in the majority of vocations have not yet been satisfactorily analyzed, much less measured. If we can find out all the essentials of fitness to fulfill a certain task and also to know the abilities of persons under consideration we may be able to adjust the work and the worker.

While placement does not come under educational guidance it does help us to get data for the work.

One of the strongest factors in schools, churches, and life in general is the life-career motive. How this motive lightens the work of the teacher and puts new life and inspiration into the pupil! The

life career should not be chosen before the seventeenth or eighteenth year. Don't specialize too soon. "You cannot build an intensive knowledge of one thing upon an extensive ignorance of all things."

While educational guidance should assist in vocational guidance we must not lose sight of its great value in preparing for the avocations,—all the duties of life, including duties as a member of the family, the community, the state, and other social groups. To assume a negative attitude on the question of one's avocation is often to destroy one's efficiency in his vocation. To shorten the hours of labor without enriching the life of the laborer is to give him more hours in which to lower his vitality and morals. Shall the hours of leisure promote enlightenment, culture, and progress, or promote degeneracy, depravity, and decay? The one encourages the beautiful in music, art, and literature; the other seeks satisfaction in prize-fights and the common vices.

The responsibility for the educational guidance of the boys and girls does not rest upon any one person or department. Until teachers, principals, and all those connected with the educational interests of our great Commonwealth do their best to see that every child is given a fair opportunity to become actually what he is potentially, we have not discharged our full responsibility. While this is our duty as educators, Carlyle, on being installed rector of University of Edinburgh in 1866, told the students what "a man is born to, in all epochs. He is born to expend every particle of strength that God Almighty has given him, in doing the work he finds he is fit for; to stand up to it to the last breath of life, and to do his best."

3. WHAT SHOULD CONSTITUTE A REGULAR FOUR YEARS HIGH SCHOOL COURSE?

WILLIAM McANDREWS. *Associate Superintendent, New York City*

Fellow Citizens: The moderator designates twenty-eight minutes for this discourse. He does not know the tenor of it. He is in no way responsible for any sentiment uttered in it. He has merely set the question: "What should constitute a regular four years course?"

This question suggests what different ages have regarded as the purpose of schools.

The ancient Hebrews would say "To teach the scriptures."

Plato and the Greeks: "To develop the whole man."

The Romans: "To impart useful knowledge."

The Monks: "To traverse the trivium and quadrivium."

The leaders of the Renaissance: "To enjoy the classics."

The promoters of the Reformation: "To advance the true religion."

The Jesuits: "To discipline."

The professor: "To fit for college."

The eminent high school advocates of my boyhood days: "To give a broad, deep, sound scholarship;" "To train the mind, to develop leaders, to illustrate the survival of the fittest."

The ordinary high school teacher: "To cover the course of study."

The average citizen: "To fit my child to get on in the world and to rise above the common herd."

But is there not some specific, authoritative statement of those who were responsible for making American public schools an agency of government, supported by money taken from everybody whether he has children or not?

Let Franklin say what public schools are for: "To supply succeeding ages with men that will serve the public welfare."

Washington: "To enlighten public opinion."

John Adams: "To instruct the people in knowledge useful in the practice of the moral duties of a man and citizen."

Monroe: "To qualify society, in every district, to discharge with credit and effect those great duties of citizens on which free government rests."

Madison: "To arm with the power of knowledge a people who mean to be their own governors."

Jefferson: "To enable the people to understand what is going on in the world and to keep their part of it going on right."

Whatever propositions affecting the establishment of public education I can read in the speeches, letters, and essays of the leaders of that Revolution which established our nation, do not logically lead to the scriptures, the whole man, useful knowledge, triviums, quadriviums, the classics, religion, discipline, college-preparation, scholarship, mental training, leadership, course of study, or getting on in the world, as the purpose of American public schools.

But the aims proposed for American schools by these founders of our democracy do mean service, enlightened opinion on public questions, knowledge useful in the practice of the moral duties of men and citizens, ability to discharge the duties of citizens with credit and effect, knowledge necessary to people who govern themselves, knowledge of what is going on in the world and desire to make one's part of it go on right.

So far as I know everybody believes that the builders of our Republic intended to establish a society quite different and quite better than any then constituted. They were unequivocally certain that they ought to state the general principles underlying their plan. They put them in the two fundamental documents on which all our national policies rest: the Declaration and the Constitution. Having stated these principles, having founded a nation upon them, it was inevitable that they should turn their attention to the means of keeping these ideals alive from generation to generation in order that the blessings the people had gained might not, through ignorance or carelessness, be taken away. It must have been apparent to every man of that time, who looked into the future, that provision should be made specifically to develop public opinion, to train to self-government, to educate each rising generation in the duties of citizens. One would expect Franklin, Washington, Madison, Monroe, Jefferson, and other leaders, to express themselves on this subject. One, looking back from now, would expect a department of education to have been made a feature of the general government, just as a post office department was. But the student who examines those days knows how desirous public men were to recognize the rights of the individual states which joined the union. We can in this fact find sufficient explanation why the leaders contented themselves with expressing the common opinion as to what schools ought to do.

When one reviews the subsequent barren years of American education; when one recalls the heart-wearying struggles of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, and Daniel Pierce; when one blushes at the criminal carelessness resulting in the loss of state school funds; when one surveys the appalling records of American adult illiteracy; when one contemplates the long period of neglect of training in the very qualities to cultivate which is the fundamental reason for maintaining public schools; one wishes that the inter-colonial jealousies had been mild enough to have permitted a truly national provision for schooling, organized by such a man as Franklin or Jefferson. There would, then, have been written, I think, into the fundamental school law, as these men wrote into the great Declaration, a statement of what this school business is all about. Perhaps we should now not be in the position that causes an eminent professor of education in our most famous university to hear quoted so often his now famous sentence: "The American High School has all sails set and doesn't know where it's going." The New Jersey high-school teachers announced as their subject for discussion "The High Schools, a Chaos." A former president of a large city's Board of Education calls his high schools: "The Blind Men's Bluff." Editorials in what are commonly regarded as leading newspapers voice a doubt as to the service the high schools proffer; and the great State of Pennsylvania, almost

a century and a half after the nation was born and its founders had said you must keep alive its democracy by training the people for self-government,—a hundred and forty-three years after that event, the great State of Pennsylvania puts to an assembled company of school men a fundamental consideration, not as a fact, but as a question: "What should constitute a regular four years course of an American public high school?"

Pottstown, Norristown, Scranton, Wilkes-Barre, answer it, other cities, towns, and communities, answer it, in almost identical terms.

Where did they get the answer? Did any person or company of persons in Pottstown, Norristown, Scranton, or Wilkes-Barre say: "Here we have several thousand children between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one years of age who must be trained to defend, purify, and perpetuate American principles; let us devise a set of daily studies and exercises by which all of these young people may be fitted to exercise that duty?" Was the regular four-years course in Pottstown or Norristown, Wilkes-Barre or Scranton, devised for such a purpose? Was the regular four-years course of the New York high schools devised for such a purpose? Was there any inquiry in these cities? "What do our adolescent children most need to make citizens of them?" "What work is most adapted to do this?" It is doubtful. You have seen high-school courses made. A committee assembles; different members have assortments of pamphlets before them; courses of study from different cities. After more or less haggling, a course of study emerges, nineteen-twentieths copy, one-twentieth invention and the whole thing, if it has any purpose at all, might be connected in some degree with a Greek purpose: to develop the whole man, or with a Roman purpose: to impart useful knowledge; or with a Renaissance purpose: to interpret the classics; or with a Jesuitical purpose: to discipline; or with a savant purpose: to give scholarship; or with the traditional high school man's purpose: to illustrate the survival of the fittest. But to connect the standard course adequately with the fundamental, historical American purpose: the preparation of a citizen for actual citizenship, requires a forced reasoning that a great many people cannot successfully rationalize.

The imitative aspects of the course are too evident. Wilkes-Barre's looks so much like Pottstown's; Pottstown's so much like Norristown's; Norristown's so much like New York's; that even the amateur archeologist recognizes, in spite of a few variations, the original type; and traces it to one or another Atlantic seaport in one of the thirteen colonies, and thence, direct to the England of James, of Charles, of William and Mary, or of Queen Anne.

And there he finds it to be the course designed for young gentlemen, the elite, the leisure class. He finds it in a society which links the two words "gentleman and scholar" together, a class which does not work with the hands; a class which by means of laws of primogeniture, of entail of titles of nobility, preserves its distinction. Its education aims at polite learning, at familiarity with classes, at refinements of grammar and rhetoric, at ability to compose with the pen, but not at the equipment of the mass of the people to have voice in public affairs. The origins of culture and education came to us from England; they came to England from an ancient civilization that had little regard for the common man. This regard, as understand it, was made a basal idea of the American plan, emphasized through successive epochs by a Jefferson, a Jackson, a Lincoln. But the education existing before the Revolution was not this sort. It was the education which the colonies imported with their wines, their silks, and with their Chippendale furniture. This was the system of education which remained the core of high school studies up to our own time. There was a Revolution in political ideals. There was no revolution in educational ones.

If one's conception of a high school education is that of refined scholarship, preparation for leisure, mental discipline, superiority to the common run of men, one should choose for a regular course of studies as are remote from the everyday affairs of life; Latin, geography, college professors' English, ancient history, studies as an eminent Columbia professor has said, which "induct a chosen or worthy few into a specially trained patriciate, an aristocracy of minds." Such a school may without concern see in its community but a small percent of the children of high-school age go into the world uneducated, unhelped, meeting the problems of adult citizenship with only the training of children. Such a school may calmly view its members willingly drop by the wayside, unable or undesirous of pursuing its studies farther.

If one's conception of a high school is that of a government agency on which the obligation rests to care for all the children from thirteen to twenty-one years of age and to fit them to preserve and prove American institutions to the intent that all the people may approach the ideal of living happily and nobly together, one must look elsewhere than in the origin of our high school education for ideals.

I have intimated that those ideals are political, rather than literary or scholastic, that our school system is made a public expense on behalf of the people in order that the democracy which the Fathers had in view may be realized. I have intimated that these ideals are enunciated in our public documents, notably in the Declaration and the Constitution. If this is true then a logical way to arrive

at a regular four-years course would be to set down the purposes which the proponents of our national ideals and the advocates of perpetuating them by education expounded. I have repeated the views of Franklin, Washington, Adams, Monroe, and Jefferson. These ideals were enumerated in the State papers I have referred to. These ideals include:

Equality.

The right to life.

The right to liberty.

The right to the pursuit of happiness.

The right to alter or abolish any government destructive of these rights and to establish, but not for light or transient causes, a new government designed to secure safety and happiness.

The duty to form a more perfect union.

The duty to establish justice.

The duty to insure domestic tranquility.

The duty to provide for the common defense.

The duty to promote the general welfare.

The duty to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity.

It is significant that within the past ten years Rabbi Hirsch has said that our plan of education has wofully neglected to realize these hopes of the fathers; that Charles Eliot has affirmed that we are not devoting ourselves to the production of men who think public mindedly that Andrew S. Draper declares that we have wasted the lives of the children; that Theodore Roosevelt deplores education's neglect of an essential stress upon public education for public benefit not for individual advancement; that Julius Sachs, Columbia Professor of high school training, has declared that a storm of protest assails the high schools.

If we should put aside all our machinery and think of education as helping young people to change from what they are to what the general welfare demands they ought to be, if we could think of American education not in terms of European-planned schools, the result would have, at least, the American purpose as primary, preponderating, predominating, not incidental and stuck on.

I cannot conceive that a general course of this kind would read as one big Pennsylvania city's course does: "First year. English, Algebra, Language, General Science," or as another's "First year English, Algebra, Language, Ancient History or Biology, choose one elective," or as another's "Latin, Algebra, Arithmetic, Grammar Com-

position and Classics," or as any of the courses of prominent cities of Pennsylvania or New York or any other state announcing regular courses which make prominent and most important studies like Latin, or language, or algebra, or English required by colleges.

The teacher who can do the main big business of training citizens to think on vital public questions, using as the means of such training exercises in Latin, algebra, geometry, natural science, modern language, rhetoric, polite literature, drawing, English, selected by college entrance boards, stenography, shopwork, or physical training is as rare a genius as that prodigy of strength and adjustment who, with a jaw bone, slew his thousands.

These subjects never were put into education for the training intended by the founders of the nation who urged that education be a public charge.

To tuck into the fourth year as do hundreds of high schools, "U. S. history and citizenship, elective twice a week," is, I think lamentably and criminally to side-step the chief duty of American public educational service.

Let us have:

First year: Principles of American citizenship, enough times a week.

First year: Public Problems. Use as the textbook some weekly publications giving various views, a publication like the Independent, The Literary Digest, or The Outlook enough times a week.

First year: Principles and practice of conduct enough times a week.

Fill the balance of the first year with such subjects as best prepare the young man and woman to enjoy the rights and perform the duties of an American citizen; include a practical course in the way to use one's mind in getting such an education.

Second year: Third year: Fourth year: Fifth year: up to 21 years of age. The upper years to be grouped in a higher insti- tution if con- ditions war- rant it:	Principles of American Citizenship; Public Problems; Personal conduct; economics; as many times a week as it is possible for the interest to be kept alive and effective. Fill the balance of the time with such subjects as may be shown to be most efficient in preparing young men and women to enjoy the rights and to perform the duties of an American citizen.
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I can see by the expression on various faces how absurd this man and that regard this proposition.

Yet, I feel sure that I can defend it as based on reason, as based on fundamental American thought, and as based on the need of the times.

But, it means throwing into the scrap-heap machinery in which a lot of money has been invested, material which tradition and use have made dear to the majority of scholars. It means the introduction of tools which the most of us don't know how to use. It means a school war in which the innovator will risk his professional life.

A common comment will be "It can't be done."

Very well, let us go ahead and do it.

We have been doing it by degrees.

Present conditions require that we do more of it and for more people.

I. STANDARDIZING THE GRADING AND PROMOTION OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

GEO. WHEELER, *Associate Superintendent, Philadelphia*

In order to standardize grading and promotion it is necessary to determine the basic idea underlying promotion. We use the expression "promotion" loosely. In subjects that are logically consecutive "promotion" does mean, as the derivation indicates, "moving forward" from one phase to another of a given study. But most subjects are not of this nature. Two subjects may be more or less related to each other, but neither one may necessarily precede or follow the other. What we are concerned with under the expression "promotion" is not primarily the moving forward, but the satisfactory accomplishment of the work in hand. Keeping this meaning in mind, a student should be promoted when he has done the work in hand so well that he will derive more value from taking up new work than he would from repeating his study of the old subject.

You will note that I speak of each subject of study and not of the whole group of studies which a student may be carrying at a given time, for I assume that no one in this group would advocate any other method of promotion in the high school than promotion by subject.

For effective and economical instruction the students are organized into instruction groups known as classes or sections, each in charge of a teacher. Class instruction is most effective when all members of the class are sufficiently near the same point of advancement to

benefit by one type of presentation. In a well organized school the classes are so constituted at the beginning of the term, but since students vary in their rates of progress differences begin to develop at once. At the end of a month these differences are commonly quite evident. By the end of a term they become so great that reorganization is necessary in order that the work in each class may once more be adapted to every student in the group. Thus regarded, promotion is not reward and nonpromotion is not punishment.

Since promotion is commonly determined either wholly or largely by the ratings that are given to the students during the term, it is a matter of importance to get dependable ratings. Promotion is too serious a matter to the student to permit ratings to be dependent on whim, carelessness, idiosyncracy, ignorance of conditions, or unreasonable standards. The rating should be a true index of the student's attainments.

Of course there will be differences in ratings under normal conditions. The ratings given in two schools of equal rank, in parallel classes in the same subject, in the same class in two different subjects are certain to vary if they represent conditions truly. This must be so since students differ in ability, subjects vary in difficulty, teachers are unlike in skill, and a multitude of other variables operate against uniformity. But examination of ratings where there has been no adequate effort at standardization will reveal variations which have no justifiable basis for their existence.

In certain schools whose records I examined recently it is the custom to exempt from final examination students whose ratings for the term have been satisfactory and to examine those who have left some doubt of their fitness for promotion. Some of the variations found in these records gave plain evidence of the lack of a uniform basis for determining the promotion of students. In a given subject one school required 53 percent of its pupils to take the final examination while another school examined but 7 percent. In another subject one school promoted 21 percent without examination and 57 percent by examination, while in another school 83 percent passed without examination and 2 percent by examination. In one class of a given school every pupil was examined and 88 percent passed, while in another class in the same subject in the same school the only pupils who passed were those who were excused from examination, and the percentage of promotion was 86. It is evident that in these cases there was no common basis for determining exemption or promotion.

The first step in standardizing rating is to know what ratings are being given. A summary of the ratings given to each class, showing in compact form the range of marks and the proportion of pupils with satisfactory records will usually furnish sufficient data to enable the principal or the head of the department to determine which

teachers are and which are not marking wisely. The remedy for unwise marking lies mainly in conference between the principal and the teachers. Sometimes these conferences should be with groups of teachers, sometimes with individuals. The teacher may need instruction in methods of marking quite as much as in methods of teaching. In many subjects it is possible to give uniform tests which will reveal to the teacher who is too lenient or too rigid in marking, how his students really compare with those of other teachers. Some demonstration of this kind is not infrequently necessary to convince teachers that their ratings need modification.

I doubt whether any reports should be sent to parents or any ratings be finally recorded, until the head of the department or the principal has received and examined the summaries of ratings to which I have referred. A report to the parents should be as accurate a statement of actual conditions as it is possible to secure. Furthermore, the ratings set down on the school records from time to time should indicate truly the progress which the pupil is making. The teacher must never lose sight of the fact that each mark set down should have a bearing on the question of the student's promotion.

Occasionally we find people who have an idea that the rating which is fixed for passing determines the standard of work required for promotion. I have heard schoolmen say with much satisfaction that whereas in other schools pupils who attain a mark of 70 are promoted, "in my school no pupil is promoted under 85." As a matter of fact the numerical basis of promotion has very little influence on standards of work. In determining the mark to be given in most subjects the mental process is as follows. "Is this pupil doing work which entitles him to promotion?" If the answer is "Yes," the pupil is given the necessary promotion mark. If 70 is required, he is given 70 or more, and if 85 is required he is given 85 or more. To raise the passing mark from 70 to 85 does not raise the standards any more than a boy increases his wealth by raising the price of his dog \$5.00 and keeping the dog.

This discussion of grading and promotion may seem to be concerned with the machinery of education rather than with the instruction of the student, but if I have made my thought clear, the student has been kept in mind all the way through. All of this care in regard to ratings during the term and to the promotion of the pupil at the end of the term has for its purpose the student's educational interests.

The standardizing of ratings is therefore not an unimportant function of the Principal. It is one of the factors which makes the organization over which he presides a school instead of an aggregation of classes. The old saying, "As is the teacher so is the school," ceased to be true when the little red school house with one teacher gave way to our modern large buildings with a corps of many teachers. The influence of the principal should be felt in every class

room. He can do something by his personal observation and contact, but much must be done through the regulations he establishes and enforces. Since the whole purpose of promotion is to place pupils where the next term's work may be of most value to them, and since ratings during the term have an important bearing on promotion, it is evident that the wise control of these matters is deserving of the careful attention of every principal.

5. HOW SHALL THE GRADING AND PROMOTION OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS BE STANDARDIZED?

S. H. LAYTON, *Superintendent of Schools, Altoona.*

In my own thinking upon this aspect I have dealt more particularly with the standardization for the entire state of Pennsylvania rather than with any local system.

I should not urge standardization if I felt that standardization would lead merely to uniformity. I do not believe that we can afford to hinder individual initiative and fail to consider individual differences. I think rather that I should discuss the matter of standardization with the idea of evaluation rather than uniformity. We can, I believe, evaluate different schools and the work in different schools to an advantage without in any way insisting upon uniform conditions within the schools themselves.

The first step toward standardization is in the *rules concerning the attendance of pupils* themselves. There is no uniform rule over the state concerning the treatment of withdrawals from schools. In some cases five days' absence is counted a withdrawal, and other schools vary in important particulars from this plan. If there could be a uniform rule to follow then the percents of attendance as indicated in reports would determine the real status of attendance in the schools reporting.

The second important step in standardization is in setting up *definite aims* in the teaching of the various subjects. There is today great variety and extreme vagueness in the aims which teachers would give in the various subjects. A clear discrimination between the "training function" of the teacher and the "educating function" of the teacher should be made. How much of each of these functions is to be had in each recitation, how definitely the goal in each can be reached; these are all leading toward a standardization of the teaching and of the school.

The third important step in standardization is in the *classifying of the high school itself*. In Section 1701 of the Code first-class high schools must have a four years' course, nine months' school and three qualified teachers. A second class high school must have a three years' course, eight months' school with two qualified teachers. In the third class high school the law specifies that a two years' course is the only defining standard. Each class is determined by the length of its shortest course. To properly standardize high schools there should be a specific requirement for a *minimum training of teachers*, for the *maximum number of students per class*, for the *library equipment*, for the *laboratory equipment* and as to *methods of teaching themselves* under very rigid state inspection.

The fourth step in standardization is to get away from *mere teacher judgment*, mere opinion in the grading of students in the subjects. I need not repeat here the well known facts as to how judgment differs in grading the same paper. We need therefore to come to the *use of intelligence tests* in high schools as the colleges and universities are coming to the use of these tests. The Army Alpha Test has revealed the importance of this kind of work and something similar may be followed out to advantage in the high schools themselves. We need also to use more largely the standard tests that have already been developed for the different subjects of the high school. In English we have Starch's Vocabulary Test, the Trabue Completion Tests, Starch's Grammatical Test, the Silent Reading Tests by Monroe or Courtis, and Thorndike's Scale Alpha for Measuring the Understanding of Sentences. In Algebra we have Coleman's Scale for testing ability in Algebra, Holtz's First Year Algebra Scales, Monroe's Standard Research Test in Algebra, Stromquist's Preliminary Algebra Tests, Rugg and Clark's Standard Tests in First Year Algebra, Thorndike's Algebra Test. In Latin we have Brown's Connected-Latin Test, Latin Sentence Test, and Formal Latin-Vocabulary Test, Brown's Formal Latin-Grammar Test and Brown's Functional Latin-Grammar Test, Hanus' Latin Test, Henman's Latin Test. In French we have Starch's French Vocabulary and Reading Test. In Geometry we have Minnich's Geometry Test, Rogers' Mathematical Tests, Stockard and Bell's Geometry Test. In Physics Starch's Test in Physics. In Physical Training Rapeer's Scale for Measuring Physical Education. In Drawing Rugg's Scale for Measuring Freehand Lettering. In History Sackett's Scale in American History, Sackett's Scale in Ancient History, and Harlin's Test for Information in United States History. Here we have a beginning, both for measuring the mechanics and the content of subjects, and this will grow as the demand increases. By the more general use of these tests for promotion purposes we shall get away from the mere personal judgment of the teacher of the subject. The standard tests are impersonal and social and give splendid opportunity for estimating and comparing the results of the schools.

The fifth step, which I would suggest, is the more extended use of both the quantitative and qualitative credit. How long a subject is studied must determine somewhat the quantity of credit to be given, but there should be in addition to this a plan of credit either on the Pittsburgh plan, the Kansas City, Kansas plan or some other equally good qualitative credit plan. In the Pittsburgh plan there is a grouping of the work of the students under five groups, A, B, C, D and E. The C group is the basic group. They are expected to master the essentials of the subject. The B group must master the essentials and show some power of original application. The D group must gain fair mastery of the essentials. A credit of 1 is given the C group, a grade of 1.2 is given the A group for exceptional proficiency. In the Kansas City plan there are three grades. Grade 1 for 95% perfect work wins 1.2 credit, grade 2 for 85% perfect work wins 1.1 units credit. Grade 3 for 75% perfect work wins 1 unit credit. You will readily see that by this scheme a student making Grade 1 throughout his course, carrying five subjects, for three years, will gain 18 credits. The use of the qualitative plan should put special emphasis upon the defining of the aims of instruction. It is therefore wise to announce beforehand the very definite aims which students are to be graded upon. Tests will then have a more specific purpose in testing upon this definite objective. There is also advantage in thus setting up these definite aims for the teachers of one department, and there is also splendid faculty co-operation required to bring about this efficiency.

These five aims then, in my judgment, will bring about a standardization on the basis of evaluation of the various school systems of Pennsylvania without robbing them of their local initiative as systems or the individual students of their initiative.

6 HOW CAN THE AIMS AND PURPOSES OF INSTRUCTION BE MADE MORE VITAL IN ACTUAL PRACTICE?

THOMAS H. BRIGGS, *Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y.*

First, by accepting aims that are in themselves vital. The aims learned in some philosophies of education and mechanically quoted afterward are unfortunately for the most part not pragmatic—that is to say, they do not guide us to correct *action*. What is needed in education is a sort of golden rule which will guide without restricting, which will force us to honest thinking about conditions and pupils as they are, freeing us from practices that have no warrant other than tradition. Such a pragmatic statement of purpose will insure that all the good in past or present practice will be preserved; moreover it will free and encourage us to make desirable changes.

No statement of purpose has value, then, unless it guide and stimulate one to action. Although it is recognized that this principal may justify a different set of aims for each individual, the following are proposed as suggestive:—

— The first duty of the school is to train pupils to perform better the desirable activities that they are likely to perform anyway.

Another duty of the school is to reveal higher types of activity and to make them both desired and to an extent possible.

Acceptance of these theses incurs the obligation to list by inventory the desirable knowledges, attitudes, prejudices, skills, and habits which men and women have and should have in our democracy. It necessitates our incorporating these into our courses of study, as rapidly as we may with effectiveness.

Second, by increasing the amount and effectiveness of skilled supervision of instruction. Outside of teaching and of routine clerical duties, from which he should be largely relieved, a principal directly or through assistants, should administer the high school, direct its social life, and supervise instruction. Much observation and inquiry lead to the conclusion that supervision by principals is done less regularly and less well than are the other duties—partly because its results are less immediately obvious but chiefly because it is difficult, requiring professional skill and arduous application. Teachers, experienced as well as inexperienced, need the guidance and stimulus which come from a supervision that will urge each one to formulate or to accept statements of purpose for his subject that are specific, definite, and worthy, that will insist on such purposes being sought in each recitation unit, and that will show by measurements the results of such purposeful instruction. It is reasonable to expect a principal to give the major part of his time and effort to the improvement of teachers in service.

Third, by seeing that specific, definite, and worthy purposes are proposed by pupils or else comprehended, approved, and adopted by them as their own. This means that pupils should be prepared to do better what they will be constantly be called on in actual life to do—find problems and devise means of effectively solving them. Nowhere except in the classroom or in the lowest grades of employment are human beings regularly told exactly what to do, furnished all the necessary data and only those, and expected to find their satisfaction in the approval of a taskmaster. It is difficult to see how we may expect pupils to develop initiation and independence unless they are trained to propose problems or, after comprehending, to approve those that are given them and then intelligently to devise means of economical solution. With such a plan of work, we should go a long way toward ridding the schools of the wasteful and all too common spirit of “getting-by.”

LIBRARIES



1. THE LIBRARY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

(a). PARKE SCHOCH, *Principal, West Philadelphia Girls' High School*

The problem of the library in the secondary school is two-fold:—

1. How to *get* the library.
2. How to *use* it.

1. The need of a well equipped library in the modern secondary school is so obvious, at least to school men, that argument in its interest may be omitted. Emphasis upon this need, however, should be stressed by the superintendents of schools upon school boards so that they would make provision —

- (a) For a library conveniently located in every high school building erected.
- (b) The necessary amount of money in the annual budget for the purchase of books to keep the library up to date and for the expense of administration.

While it is true that in all high school buildings of recent construction library rooms are provided, it is only in rare instances that any provision has been made for stocking the library with books and for setting aside ample amounts of money to make the books available to the students in proper administration.

School boards too generally regard the expenditure of public funds for these purposes as unnecessary, pointing to the public libraries as meeting all reasonable library needs of the community. High school principals and faculties know, only too well, that these public institutions do not at present serve the library needs of the school; first, because they are generally, in large cities especially, too remote from the school buildings to make them readily accessible; and second, because at present there is little or no co-ordination between public library systems and public school systems. That this co-ordination should be made is generally admitted, and if properly made would do much to solve the library problem in the secondary school, especially that phase of it that has to do with the purchase and distribution of books necessary to an appreciation of literature. In other words, books of a general literary value might very easily be furnished by public library systems to the libraries of the high schools, while the school boards could properly expend public funds for the necessary standard reference books and books for collateral reading.

When the superintendents of the state assume an aggressive attitude on this library question, school boards will likely respond by the provision of ample funds for the creation and maintenance of library facilities in the high schools.

2. Many schools today have libraries of ample proportions, but which do not function as they should in the education of the students through lack of a proper administrative agency. Most of us high school principals are obliged to limp along with teacher attendants in the library. This is not satisfactory for two reasons—first, the teachers of English or history who usually share this responsibility, are rarely trained in library technique, and second, because the changing personnel in library attendance of this kind results in a most unsystematic care and distribution of the books.

Very few, if any, teacher-attended libraries are catalogued, and hence are of comparatively small service to faculty and students. What is needed, of course, is a college-educated, technically trained librarian, whose sole duty it is to see that the high school library is stocked with all the books needed, both of a literary and reference character, to serve the needs of the high school, and to administer such a library so that it is made readily accessible to teachers and pupils at all times. Such librarian should be chosen with the same care as is every other member of the school organization, and she should, of course, rank with the department heads of the high schools. Like them, too, she should be a teacher, and one of her duties as librarian should be to conduct classes in those phases of library technique that every person using the library should understand, such as a ready use of the library catalogue, how to use the various indexes to general literature and to reference sources, how to read and interpret publishers' catalogues, etc.

There seems to be little or no established library practice in the State of Pennsylvania; no settled policy appears to have been defined, and therefore none is followed. The State Education Department has an opportunity here, among its many opportunities, to do a real service to the schools of the State in establishing standards of high school library equipment, organization, and administration, and in providing inspectors to assure the maintenance of such standards. This is the recommendation we would lay before the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

(b.) THE PROBLEM OF THE LIBRARY: IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

ALICE EATON, *Harrisburg Public Library*

Right inter-relation and cooperation between schools and libraries is of the utmost importance in the educational plans of a community. That this relation might become a fact in Harrisburg, the best possible service to schools, consistent with our resources, was established as soon as possible after the opening of the Harrisburg Public Library to the public, January 1st, 1914.

The service has included reference work for debates, essays, and class work for the upper schools, with special tables assigned for reserved books and periodicals; supplementary reading lists prepared and kept on file; instruction in the use of the library, in knowledge of reference books and of children's literature in the training school for teachers; story-hours in the lower schools and special schools; instruction in the use of the library and best reference books in the English classes of the Central and Technical High Schools; and circulating libraries placed in the school buildings. Twenty-one library collections are in the schools for the year 1919-1920.

Story-hours are conducted in the library, with the view of leading the children to enjoyment of the best in literature, history, and science. Illustrated nature talks are given, using the slides from the State Educational Museum, and occasional picture story-hours with music have added variety. Last spring a simple dramatic pageant was presented, illustrating the Legends of Robin Hood.

Conferences are held with the school authorities as often as possible, but responsibility for the work rests with the library. It is our desire to extend this service to the county, under the county unit system, which may be developed on the lines of the library systems of larger cities.

2. THE PROBLEM OF THE LIBRARY IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS

ORTON LOWE, *Asst. Superintendent of Schools, Allegheny County*

1. The child's education must run in three channels: 1—acquiring the tools of literacy, 2—working with the hands skillfully, 3—reading books in spare time. The problem of the library in the rural school is primarily one of creating a taste for reading and offering guidance in reading, and inducing a pupil to buy and read books of his own. If the problem of reading is solved in the elementary school its solution in the high school will be easy.

2. Conditions in the one-room school and the village and partially consolidated township school are in disorder as far as children's books and reading are concerned. As these types of schools may exist for some time to come the condition must be met and remedied.

3. The equipment and use of a library in rural schools need to be made mandatory. Standard lists of books and plans adaptable to local conditions should be drawn up.

4. These libraries need to be administered by the Department of Public Instruction through a county librarian and a county organization in connection with the County Superintendent of Schools' office. But the support for the library needs to be local as is that for any other kind of school supplies and equipment. The county administrator needs to be a trained librarian.

5. Libraries will not justify themselves in rural schools unless the teacher of the room knows children's books and the tastes of children in reading. For this reason all normal schools should give required courses for the year in children's books and their proper use. This should be done at the summer sessions, from now on.

6. The present public library equipment in all parts of the state, together with their excellent staff of trained librarians in the use of children's books, should be asked to cooperate with the Department of Public Instruction in carrying out any plan that might be inaugurated. The librarians know the question of children's reading and the teachers as a rule do not.

3. EXTENDING THE INFLUENCE OF THE LIBRARY OVER THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

ADA F. LIVERIGHT, *Librarian, Philadelphia Board of Education*

Most of us will agree I think with the major conclusion of the Cleveland Survey on the Public Library and the Public School that "*in their relations to each other* both schools and libraries should subordinate every other consideration to the single aim of implanting in every child an invincible love for reading."

How far short of that ideal we have fallen was strikingly manifested last year during the influenza epidemic, when the dark and depressing atmosphere was illuminated by remarks of this character heard daily on the trolley:—"Gee ain't it enough to give you the willies? Not a single thing to do—not a movie show open in this town—not a dance hall running—nothing to do but sleep." And these comments of stenographers and clerks going to their jobs probably represented the attitude of thousands of other workers and employers as well.

But there is another side to the question of "an invincible love for reading" which has been expressed by our former School Superintendent, Dr. Brumbaugh, when he said "*The free use of libraries undirected is a pernicious practice.* It is far better to have the teachers select and restrict the reading of the pupils. Many a complaint of poor work is due to the fact that the mental energy of the pupils is appropriated to reading books of no value in his educational progress, leaving him dull and listless for the specific work of the schools." *This unfortunate condition to which attention has been directed by other educators, is due primarily to the fact that the library and the school are not more closely coordinated, that two public institutions are working side by side with a common aim yet unfamiliar with the purposes and methods of each other.*

The organic relation between the public library and the public school has been a matter of debate for many years. The librarian is inclined to believe that although the public library might well be a part of the educational system, it should be conducted separately for administrative reasons. The teacher is inclined to be perfectly indifferent to the management of the library and in too many cases ignorant of its value and need in her work. This may be our fault—although we are always ready to be of service, we do not sufficiently advertise that fact. We still preserve some vestigial remains of the librarian of the Middle Ages. We become so absorbed in our work that we fail to take the necessary time to meet and mingle with the teachers. The old adage that the librarian who reads is lost should be accepted with at least one reservation, or shall I say clarifying interpretation, and that in favor of school curricula. *I should say that familiarity with the local school curricula is necessary to every librarian who hopes to do successful work with the schools.*

Before discussing briefly through what agencies the library should become an integral part of the school system, may I suggest that failing the ideal of placing all educational agencies—the schools, the libraries, the museum, and the recreation centers, *under one central organization* (with proper subdivisions, of course)—that the Cleveland plan which provides for a Library Board consisting of seven members elected by the Board of Education is worth consideration inasmuch as the Report of the Survey Committee says: "1st—That the public library has always been closely connected with the public school. 2d—That the public library occupies a more important position among the civic activities, and plays a more influential part in the home life of the city of Cleveland than it does in any other large American city." (New York City?)

In Philadelphia there are the friendliest relations between the library and the school which are under separate management, but the relation is merely incidental—the library is not accepted as belonging to the school and its work, and until the library becomes an integral part of the school system there will always be schools, especially those at a distance from a branch library, where both teachers and pupils are deprived of its cultural and practical advantages.

In addition to the Cleveland plan, I should like to see the Superintendent of Schools on the library board, the Librarian of the Public Library on the Superintendent's Council and librarians attending teachers' meetings.

To return to the means of incorporating the library as an integral part of the school system—it should be done.

First—*Through school libraries, that is branch libraries in school buildings.* These collections ranging from 1000 to 5000 volumes should be selected primarily for the children, although they may include books for the teachers, for those adults in the neighborhood who cannot go to the regular library, and for pupils of the evening schools. And may I touch here upon the wonderful field for library work in the evening schools? *"In evening schools where there is not a regular school library, an assistant from the public library system might visit and explain what the library can do for the pupils; she might distribute application cards and book lists; and in the evening schools where there is a large foreign element there might be a travelling library of carefully selected books in simple English, as well as books for the elders in the language of the home."* (An assistant who knows the language of the neighborhood can do much to make the library popular.) In Cleveland of the night school pupils registered in 1913-14 who had borrowed books prepared for foreigners learning the English language, or books in the different native languages, about 24 percent continued to draw books in the following year and one-half of their reading was English, indicating that progress had really been made in acquiring the English language. (Americanization.)

The experiment known as the Gary system or the modified Gary system, which the part-time problem is forcing us to adopt, should work out favorably for school libraries in elementary schools. Under this plan no room is ever unused; one room is specially equipped and set aside for auditorium work, another for art, another for gymnastics and so on. Special teachers for special subjects are also being employed the same as in higher schools. In this scheme a room equipped as a library would be used as a class room rotating groups and the use of the library would form part of the regular class work.

with special teachers to assist the pupils. It is natural to suppose that special teachers will be better able to direct the pupils in supplementary reading along their special lines of work, just as they are better equipped to teach one or two subjects than to teach lessons covering the entire course of study.

Another means of influencing children's reading is through classroom libraries of from 20 to 50 books sent at the request of the teacher and selected from a central school library collection kept at the main library. A far better selection and one which would connect directly with the school work could be made by principal and librarian jointly. Take for example our course of study in Civics for fifth grade, where a survey of occupations is made. Practically *all* teachers know that the best *English classics* are to be found at the public library, but they are entirely ignorant of the wealth of material written on the various trades and professions both from the technical and the vocational guidance standpoint. So because of the failure of teacher and librarian to pool their information, such a specialized collection as the classroom library is often left to the individual taste of a library official or oftentimes to the chance of "leftovers." The conclusion of the Cleveland Survey are that "since the responsibility for the classroom collections rest upon the individual teacher already heavily taxed, we must consider classroom libraries as less satisfactory than either general school libraries or branch libraries." Personally, I think the benefits to the children of having their reading directed by one whose influence is second only to that of the home and by one who knows their individual needs are so great that every effort should be made to secure them.

The high school library in charge of a trained librarian we take as a matter of course, and a special library room is always planned in the specifications for a new high school building. All authorities recommend that the high school book collections be expanded so as to include works of inspiration and recreation as well as those of information. In Cleveland, high school libraries are conducted on a co-operative basis by the Board of Education and the Library Board. The high school libraries of Newark, Passaic, and Portland, Oregon, are branches of the public library. In Kansas City where school and library are under joint control, the branch libraries in high schools have been so successful that all new grade buildings are to have library rooms. (Mrs. Powell).

Quite as important, if indeed not more important than the Senior high school library is a well-equipped library, in charge of a trained librarian, in the *Junior* high school. A great majority of children never reach the Senior high school. Moreover the most impressionable years of youth, the years when right reading habits can be established are spent in the *Junior* high school.

It goes without saying that in order that pupils may be able to use a library with intelligence, instruction in the use of books should be given throughout the entire period of school life. Beginning in the primary grades with little informal talks on keeping books clean, free from dog ears, etc. (Philadelphia Course in Civics) instruction may advance to the standards recommended by the American Library Association and the National Education Association.

Briefly, the report of 1915 on Library work in normal schools recommends that 25 lessons of not less than 45 minutes be devoted to reference work, the same to children's literature, and that an elective course on technical subjects be provided for teacher librarians. Mrs. Powell in her illuminating book on The Children's Library states that only three normal schools in the country give all these recommended courses.

Undoubtedly the library influence over an entire school system radiates from the Normal school. Here our teachers are trained. With them lies the future of the child. They are trained not only to find readily and to use intelligently the necessary material for their classroom work, but they are given a practical knowledge of children's books, and sufficient instruction in the technical side of library work to enable them to administer their classroom libraries.

The Philadelphia Normal School devotes in the freshman year 20 periods to a course of instruction in the use of general and special reference works and the arrangements of books in a library. This work is under the capable direction of Miss Gendell, the librarian, who is trained as a teacher as well as a librarian. No home work is required of the students, so a portion of the 20 periods is spent in the preparation of their lessons. During the Junior year twenty lessons on children's literature are given by the English department, while the Kindergarten department for one year and a half gives one lesson a week on Stories and Story telling. (Miss Adair.)

To further extend the influence of the library over the public school system, I want to urge that College Departments of Education include courses in School Library Organization and Administration; Child psychology as the basis for book selection; Children's literature (and many more high sounding but plainly needed courses I could name). Teachers are urged to take college work. Many engaged in the delectable pursuit of enough college credits to capture a degree devote their time to study which is neither a pleasure to themselves nor a benefit to their pupils. How much better were the same time expended in the truly interesting and at the same time practical studies I have named.

I have said nothing about the Pedagogical Library maintained by the Philadelphia Board of Education, because I should like you to think me modest. But I am going to be entirely frank and tell you that I think it could be made a much more useful organization were it under the joint control of the Board of Education and the Free Library system.

I should be glad to tell you about its reference work for the Superintendent's department and for the school system at large; of its truly fine collection of books and pamphlets on Education and related subjects; of its unique library of lantern slides. But this is not necessary as we hope to have you visit us during the approaching sessions of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association when you will find us busy and cheerful in spite of inadequate accommodations and old and dingy surroundings.



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